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THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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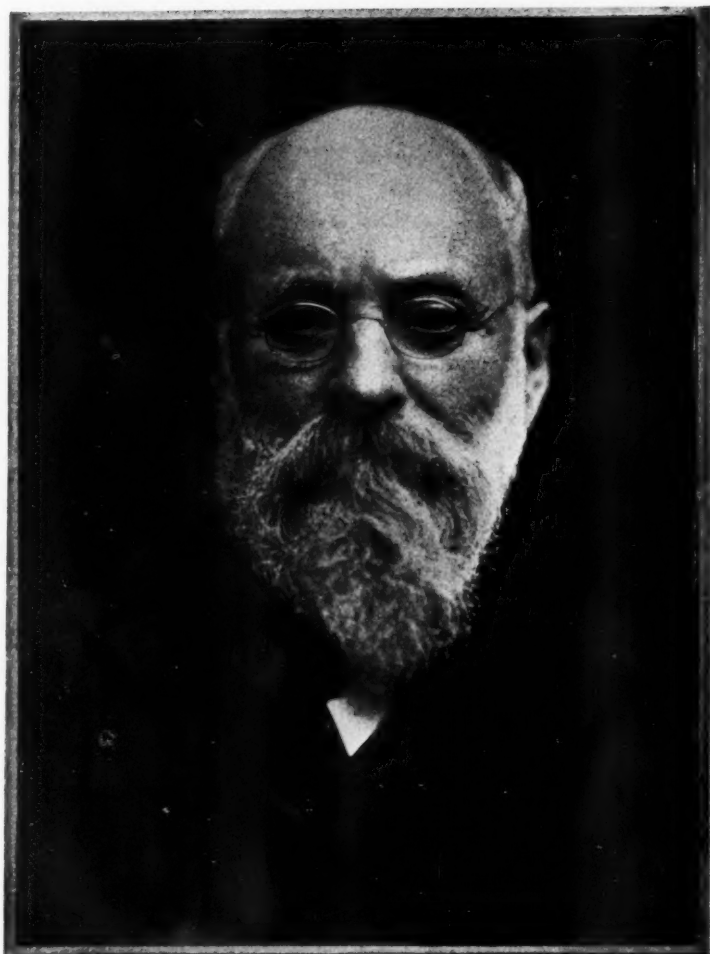
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CHARLES A. DANA.

See Current History and Opinion.



From the painting by Hofmann.

CHRIST AND THE RICH RULER.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

VOL. XXVI.

DECEMBER, 1897.

No. 3.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

CHRIST IN ART.*

BY CHARLES MASON FAIRBANKS.



From the painting by Murillo.

THE MIRACLE OF THE LOAVES AND FISHES.

NO pursuit, one might say, could be more unsatisfactory than a striving after the unattainable; and yet for many centuries the greatest artists have been attracted by a no less inspiring undertaking than that of realizing in pigments upon canvas the ideal image of Christ. The utter hopelessness of the task has not deterred them from seeking in the realms of fancy for means to represent the godlike majesty of the Savior of mankind. Some, no doubt, have gone about it with the deliberate and uninspired purpose of the mere

painter; others, with loftier motives and a true religious feeling, have striven to attain the high ideal which, I think, we must all still feel has never been fully realized. It would seem to the devout mind that the face and features of him who is the light of the world were as incapable of human representation as is the effulgence of the orb of day. Human limitations in art stop this side of the perfect ideal.

The subject is too vast to be considered with anything like historical completeness in the brief limits of this article. From the rude drawings of the catacombs to the weird tableaux of Doré; from Dürer's powerfully

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

repulsive and realistic representations of the Savior's sufferings to Merson's¹ sentimental compositions; from Guido Reni's² ideal in the so-called "Ecce Homo" to the modern materialism of Hofmann, is certainly too broad a field to be covered at a glance.

I suppose that Guido's "Ecce Homo" has had the greatest influence upon the fancy of painters since his time, in establishing what may be accepted as the conventional portrait of Christ, inadequate as it must be admitted to be in the representation of that supernal countenance. It is the Man of Sorrows, but it conveys little of the idea of divinity. The suffering that is depicted is not that of him who died for mankind, but merely that of an Italian model. And yet for three hundred years it has remained in popular acceptance, the counterfeit presentment of the living Christ.

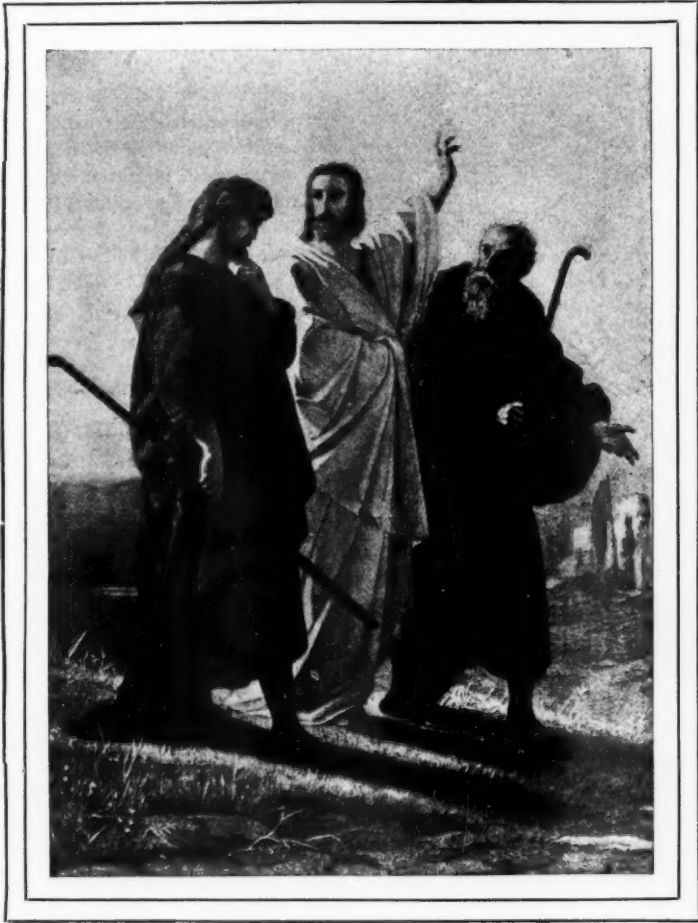
Despite the dramatic, and perhaps meretricious, qualities of Gérôme's³ "Crucifixion," it would seem to be a more satisfactory method of treating the awful tragedy of Calvary. It will be recalled, perhaps, that the story was told by indirection and the figure of the

Savior was suggested only in the shadow of the tree that fell across the Mount of Golgotha. In the distance lay the city, and over it hung the pall of clouds, as the storm approached in which the veil of the temple was rent in twain. The centurions wound around the roadway to the city, two or three stragglers in the foreground looking back upon their bloody work, while through a rift in the clouds, low down on the sky-line, the light of the sun, with its message of resurrection, cast the shadow of the cross along the surface of the hill. There is the whole story of the tragedy, told unmistakably and pathetically; but the sensibilities are not shocked by a gruesome spectacle, as in Dürer's cruelly real representation of the Savior's death. There is no attempt to represent the unpaintable. No devout soul is made to feel that his conception of the face of the Savior has been violated; for it seems to me plain that each one must have, according to his own capacity for exaltation, a mental vision which can never be realized by another's imagination, much less by the image that another might paint.



From the painting by Hofmann.

CHRIST DISPUTING WITH THE DOCTORS.



From the painting by Plockhorst.

THE JOURNEY TO EMMAUS.

Bearing upon this point of the personal and individual conception of the face of the material Son of God, it is curious to observe how rarely the type, as painted, is Jewish. The early Italian painters, who had a knowledge of drawing, naturally portrayed the classical ideal of the perfect man according to Italian standards. Their skill was as much greater than was that of the painters of Cranach's⁴ time as was their intellectual conception of their subject. They have given us, therefore, the most acceptable rendition of the scenes of this sacred history. But their Christ was an Italian. He was of a Spanish type

among the Spanish painters and of a Dutch type in Holland. Even our modern painters have yielded to these anachronisms. Brown, the Parisian, has even gone so far as to represent him in modern dress, as a French gentleman, and Munkacsy⁵ has made of him a Russian peasant.

Of course the earlier works of the time of Cranach are interesting historically alone. They are ugly enough, though perhaps sincere. In so far as they are earnest in purpose and devout in spirit we are justified in paying homage to them, and in joining with the dead-and-gone painters in a worship of



From the painting by Raphael.

THE TRANSFIGURATION.

that divinity which they strove, honestly though vainly, to depict. It is difficult in regard to some of our more modern works of Christian art to satisfy one's self that the spirit of religion was the actuating impulse of the painter. Too often there is a sug-

gestion of the mere effort toward a theatrical effect.

I have in mind a certain extraordinary instance of charlatanism that for months thrived upon the unquestioning spirit of devotion of the community, as an instance of our readiness to accept as sincere and honest that which relates to our most sacred sentiments. A certain Mr. Bentley, an untutored limner, evolving a certain foolish theory as to painting, set about befooling the public with an egregious head of Christ of colossal size. He called it "The Living Christ," and exhibited it in a large hall which was darkened and draped so that the full force of his arrangement of electric lights should fall upon his remarkable canvas. It was a theatrical arrangement and false to even pious sentiment—a mockery and a sacrilege; and yet there was for many weeks a steady pilgrimage of well-meaning persons to this trickster's exhibition hall, who sat in churchly silence, awed into a spirit of worship by this gigantic fraud of a painting.

Historically the church and its traditions provided the earliest artists with their impulses and inspirations. Crude as were their works, they were the expressions of a primitive faith, and all early art was religious in sentiment and expression. The traditions in the life of Christ have been



From the painting by Leonardo da Vinci.

THE LAST SUPPER.

treated by many painters with a certain conventional agreement as to details, either based on Scriptural descriptions or following the earliest formulæ of the imagination. The Nativity, the adoration of the Magi, the flight into Egypt, and Holy Families without number, down to the crucifixion and ascension, have been variously treated through the ages. Where these subjects have been treated poetically and with imagination they have power to inspire in us all, to this day, sentiments of devotion and adoration; where they have been done with regard for realistic details they are usually hideous, and to be tolerated alone for historical reasons.

As appertaining to the Christmas season, the Nativity is, of course, the incident of the greatest interest. In the earliest pictures this scene was located in a cave, and somewhat later a wooden shed was substituted for the primitive and rocky retreat. Among the spectators an ox and an ass are always included, somewhat incongruously, the one signifying the Jews and the other the Gentiles. Correggio's⁶ well-known "Nativity" is perhaps the most familiar example of this phase of the art that represents the Christ-child in a daz-



From the painting by Titian.

THE TRIBUTE MONEY.

zling effulgence of incandescence. In the early ages pictures of this sort, frescoes and paintings, were calculated, as they are to this very day, in certain cathedrals where



From the painting by L. Olivier Merson.

THE REPOSE IN EGYPT.



From the painting by Murillo.

THE ADORATION OF THE SHEPHERDS.

copies of them hang, to excite sentiments of the most abject devotion.

Murillo⁷ has painted a greater number of pictures of the infant Christ than perhaps any other of the masters of early times. Indeed it was by little reproductions of the Madonna and Child, painted at Seville in the early years of the seventeenth century for the captains of America-bound vessels, that he made sufficient money to visit Madrid, with an intention of going to Italy. These little canvases were taken to the newly converted inhabitants of Mexico and Peru. "The Immaculate Conception," it is said, Murillo painted as many as twenty-five times. The "Holy Family," too, he painted many times, surrounding its figures with

simple domestic accessories. The Christ was always of a Spanish type. His "Adoration of the Shepherds," now in the Vatican, is an admirable work, beautified in the glowing golden browns to which time, no doubt, has added something of richness. "The



DETAIL FROM A "HOLY FAMILY" BY RUBENS.

Miracle of the Loaves and Fishes" is at Seville. One of the most famous of Murillo's works is "The St. Anthony of Padua," in the cathedral at Seville, in which is shown the brown-frocked saint surprised by a visit from the infant Jesus, a beautiful naked child who descends to St. Anthony in a golden glory from among the company of cherubs that fill the glowing atmosphere. The state of ecstatic worship is wonderfully well expressed in the rapturous upturned face of the saint, who kneels with arms outstretched in welcome.

The youthful "Christ and the Tribute Money" (Cristo della Moneta), now in the Dresden Gallery, was painted in about 1514. It is beautiful in the flesh tints of the face of the Savior and in the rendering of the hair and beard. There is a certain majesty in the expression of Christ, as he turns to answer the cunning Pharisee who is questioning him about the tribute money. Titian's "Assumption of the Virgin" was perhaps the greatest of his religious paintings, but it must be confessed that his voluptuous tastes were more in sympathy with such subjects as portrayed beautiful women.

Raphael's "Transfiguration" is justly world-renowned. Familiar as it is to us in engravings, no copy can fitly portray the heavenly expression of the Savior's upturned face. It is in the Vatican at Rome and was the last unfinished achievement of his life. It is one of the finest pictures in the world. The scene of the transfiguration, in the upper part of the painting, is in Raphael's own hand, and its peculiar charm is in the marvelous expression of the face of Christ. The lower and larger part of the canvas was left unfinished by the master and completed by Giulio Romano.⁹ It is, in fact, two pictures, the lower one representing on one hand the disciples and on the other the multitude bearing a boy possessed of a devil. It is explained that the lower painting represents the miseries of human life, while pointing attention to the Superior Power above, in realms of divine brightness and bliss.

"The Last Supper" has been painted in all languages, as one might say. The cir-

cumstances are essentially dramatic. The earliest instance, so far as I know, is an embroidery of the eighth century, now in the Vatican. The representations of this scene are always the same so far as concerns the essential details. The Savior is shown as distributing or blessing the elements that are to this day the features of the communion table. Judas, like the latter-day Iago, is always differentiated from the apostles, with whom he may be seated and apart from whom he may be represented, "ugly and venomous," as Shakespeare says of the toad.

The glory of the life of Leonardo da Vinci¹⁰ was his famous painting of "The Last Supper," which has now unfortunately fallen into decay. Da Vinci represented the highest type of the intellect and cultivation of the sixteenth century in Italy. His genius was varied and for all time. In this splendid work the dramatic moment is chosen when Christ announces his approaching betrayal, and the disciples are represented as variously expressing their grief and consternation. The head of Christ has become almost a type of divinity. It expresses more satisfactorily than any other painting the dignity, majesty, greatness, and resignation of the Savior. The figures are larger than life, painted on the walls of the refectory in the old Santa Maria della Grazia at Milan. It is done in oil, in fugitive pigments, and damp and decay have destroyed its color and it is falling to pieces. Jesus sits in the middle with the twelve disciples on either hand at a long table on which a light repast is spread. The accessories are simple but the draperies are finely arranged. The several disciples, expressing, each according to his nature, astonishment or horror at the Savior's announcement of his betrayal, are wonderfully varied in individual character. It has been said of this masterpiece that it is the most successful effort of Christian art. Raffaele Morghen's¹¹ splendid engraving of this beautiful picture is only less famous than the fresco itself, and has put a very satisfactory interpretation of the original within reach of lovers of Christian art in all lands.

The sufferings of Christ, the procession to Calvary, the supreme agony, have been too often attempted, but never, I may venture to say, adequately. In fact all attempts to portray the holy passion are as futile as those that attempt to give us an ideal of the head of Christ. The crucifixion, the immortal tragedy, has naturally invited the chief efforts of the artists. For my own part I cannot fancy a perfect pictorial representation of this scene. It seems to me that Gérôme, in the painting to which I have already alluded, has treated the matter more wisely than those earlier masters who undertake to depict the agony by material means and simulated circumstance. No picture of the murder on the Mount of Calvary could be satisfactory in its representation to the Christian; no such scene is within the range of artistic representation. In picturing the descent from the cross and the entombment, scenes which provided frequent subjects for the brush, of course the aim of the painter is to express the Savior's love for mankind which underlay and outlined the agony, but our minds are more impressed by the torture depicted. The incidents "upon that first of Christmas days," the birth of Christ, the adoration of the Magi—the beautiful ideal which Raphael has left to us and to all time—these appeal to us at this season of the Nativity by their beauty as well as by their lofty and sound sentiment.

Of the more modern painters of sacred art few have been able to impress us as did these masters of old. Holman Hunt's¹² "Light of the World," representing the Savior, lantern in hand, knocking at the door, has a certain intellectual significance, but it is mannered in affectation of the pre-Raphaelites. His "Christ in the Temple" created a sensation when it was first shown in London in 1860, but it does not excite emotion nowadays. The youthful Christ,

sad-faced and anxious, standing among the rabbis, appears to give small thought to the Virgin who bends to embrace him. The work is full of unimportant and unpicturesque detail and is wholly lacking in any expression of inspiration. A more dramatic composition is "The Shadow of Death," which represents Christ as the carpenter, who, rising from his day's labor in the shop of Joseph, stretches his arms wearily, casting thus in the slanting evening sun a shadow of the cross upon the opposite wall.

The fault with our modern paintings of scenes in the life of the Savior appears to be an absence of the religious sentiment. They are too often merely painter-like, beautiful in execution, lovely in color, fine in the matter of graceful drawing and composition, but done by painters who for the most part are devoid of any deeper feelings than those of the material means of expressing themselves in pigments. Brushwork is not feeling, a color sense is not of a kind with religious emotion, and skill in composition and drawing are not in themselves of more consequence than is a natural gift of elocution to a pulpit orator.

The "Sistine Madonna" of Raphael, now in the Dresden Gallery, is perhaps the loveliest of the examples of Christian art. In it is expressed the spirit of adoration. "The Transfiguration," by the same artist, may be classed with it as among the half-dozen works that have had the greatest influence on the religious art and the religious sentiment of all times. Leonardo da Vinci's "Last Supper," Titian's "Assumption of the Virgin," Correggio's "Nativity," Michael Angelo's "Last Judgment," the "Immaculate Conception" of Murillo, and "The Descent from the Cross" by Rubens¹³ are other works whose fame has been justified by time and whose influence in uplifting the souls of the devout has been world-wide.

A STUDY OF SCHILLER.

BY JOSEPH FORSTER.

NO man should be better known to lovers of literature than Schiller.

Carlyle's biography of him was so excellent that Goethe translated it into German. The versions of "Wallenstein" and the magnificent "Piccolomini" by Coleridge are entirely worthy of the great originals. Then Bulwer Lytton's rendering of the fascinating and noble poems is admirable. Schiller's enthusiasm, his purity of mind, his ever-aspiring love of all that was great in nature, art, and human nature, make his works, especially in this age of cheap, shallow cynicism, unspeakably precious.

Goethe's greatness, his many-sided genius, his universal and profound knowledge of the darkest and most awful depths of human passion, create a feeling of almost awe in the student; but the sunny radiance, the love that glows and pulses through Schiller's "Don Carlos," "The Maid of Orleans," "Wallenstein," and, greatest of all, "William Tell," make the reader not only admire but love, with a keen personal affection, the splendid genius who created them.

Schiller was born in Würtemberg, on November 10, 1759—a few months after Robert Burns and ten years after the greatest and most universal man of modern times, Goethe, with whom he was to be united by loving bonds of friendship. Schiller's father had been a surgeon in the Bavarian army, and was at the time of the poet's birth employed by the Duke of Würtemberg to superintend his pleasure grounds and plantations. Schiller's parents were good and intelligent, and he owed his noble, honest, truth-loving character to them.

The Duke of Würtemberg had founded a free seminary for the sons of his military officers, and, as he had great esteem for the Schillers, he invited the parents to send Frederick there. The school was at Stuttgart, and to it the boy was sent, in 1773, at

the age of fourteen. The discipline there was terribly severe. The rules were iron; everything was done to make the boys into mere unthinking and unfeeling machines. All individuality was crushed; there was no play for character, for free will, for the display of any special features of mind and heart. No pleasure, no relaxation, no free intercourse between the boys was permitted. Drill, drill, drill, and task, task, task, was the dreary plan.

Now Frederick was a born poet, and therefore emotional and imaginative in the highest degree. It was like breaking a butterfly on the wheel. But although he suffered supremely, he conquered himself and studied hard and well, preserving, with Spartan courage, a calm exterior. Still there is no doubt that this hard discipline, just at the time, too, when the heart of a boy is most eager to open itself to congenial friends and to all that is bright, joyous, and beautiful in life, produced the retiring manner and rather awkward shyness which characterized Schiller in after life.

In 1775 he ceased to study law and turned his attention to medicine. Schiller disliked both, but of the two he hated medicine the least. At about this time he first read Shakespeare, Plutarch, Klopstock, and Lessing, with a burning, all-absorbing enthusiasm. Soon after that he read Goethe's "Götz von Berlichingen," and the passionate admiration it evoked in his mind, and, indeed, in all minds in Germany, turned his attention to the drama. The result of his reading and suffering was that he wrote his first play, "Cosmo von Medicis," some parts of which he used for "The Robbers." He penned a great many little things, afterward found among his papers. But in spite of his passionate love of poetry he pursued his serious studies with iron resolution.

"Duty first and pleasure after" was the

golden rule of Schiller. He was not a favorite with his narrow-minded, pedantic masters, and was considered by them to be an unprofitable, discontented, and disobedient youth. The publication, however, of "The Robbers" gained him the attention of the reading world. It was Schiller's intensely passionate protest against the cruel, crushing, conventional thralldom to which he had been subjected so long. The protest was in proportion to the provocation. Had not the sensitive nature of the young poet been wounded to the quick, he could not have hurled such a red-hot defiance at all the world thinks respectable and decent. Schiller commenced this astonishing and daring play when only nineteen. It is the product of a powerful but untrained mind. It is exaggerated, even grotesque; but what volcanic power, what passion, what genius it displays!

Karl von Moor is the creation of a young, enthusiastic poet. He is handsome, clever, fascinating, but without a vestige of prudence. Amelia, the only woman in the play, is a beautiful creation, but not a being of mortal flesh and blood. She, of course, loves Karl with enthusiasm. This is how she expresses her passion for him:

He sails on troubled seas—Amelia's love sails with him; he wanders in pathless deserts—Amelia's love makes the burning sand grow green beneath him, and the stunted shrubs to blossom; the South scorches his bare head, his feet are pinched by the northern snow, stormy hail beats round his temples—Amelia's love rocks him to sleep in the storm; seas and hills and horizons are between us, but souls escape from their clay prisons, and meet in the paradise of love!

No woman made for human nature's daily food talks like that, fortunately. But Schiller himself was the first to admit the extravagance of this play, which, with all its faults, shows there was real poetical fiber in the writer's soul. I think a young poet should be exuberant; the time for pruning comes later, when sad experience brings sober judgment to cut and curtail what, as a youth, he thought very fine indeed. As Schiller wisely said, he presumed to delineate men two years before he had met one. Power can be fashioned

into beauty and coherence; but want of power——?

The publication of "The Robbers" offended the Duke of Würtemberg and his courtiers. Schiller finished the play in 1778, but did not dare to publish it until he had completed his medical studies. In 1780 he obtained the position of surgeon to the regiment Augé, in the Würtemberg army. This appointment enabled him to print "The Robbers" at his own expense. Schiller was summoned to appear before the grand duke, who was not only indignant at the bold opinions expressed in the play but scandalized at its want of literary polish and ability. The duke was good enough to condescend to offer assistance to Schiller in removing the literary blot in the play, but, I regret to say, the poet did not acknowledge the proposal with adequate gratitude. This naturally annoyed his highness, who commanded Schiller to confine himself to his profession of surgeon, or, if he must write poetry, not to publish it without submitting it first to his criticism.

Schiller was twenty-three when he left Stuttgart, where dark threats against his liberty, and even life, filled the air. He said: "I went empty away—empty in purse and hope."

He was invited to stay with Madame von Wolzogen, who knew him by his works and his intimacy with her sons, his former schoolfellows at Stuttgart. The world owes much to that kind-hearted lady. Under her hospitable roof the sorely tried poet was able to collect his thoughts and energies and brace his mind and heart to continue the battle against indifference and stupidity. Schiller was not the man to repine and whine; he could suffer and be strong in silence.

Within a year after his flight from Stuttgart he produced two fine plays, "Love and Intrigue" and "Fiesco." Both these productions show a great superiority to "The Robbers." The genius of the man was growing from year to year, and developing with the mastery of passion and thought so nobly and triumphantly displayed in "Wallenstein" and "William Tell." There is

the same enthusiasm in the two plays referred to as in "The Robbers," the same ideally beautiful and perfect, and, therefore, unnatural heroines; but the exaggeration is less. There are beautiful, pure thoughts; there are fine indications of philosophical discrimination, soon to ripen into finer and more perfect work. The production of these three plays closes the first part of Schiller's literary life. The fiery "storm and stress" period was ended.

In September, 1783, he went to Mannheim as poet to the theater. This appointment fulfilled the hope of Schiller's heart and gave him a position of independence. He could now pursue his intellectual labors calmly and undisturbed; and that was all the lofty-souled poet asked of man. He had his daily bread assured; he had peace, liberty, hope, which are always sweet, but especially sweet to Schiller, by whom they were enjoyed for the first time. He said:

All my connections are now dissolved. The public is now all to me, my study, my sovereign, my confidant. To the public alone I henceforth belong; before this, and no other tribunal, will I place myself; this alone do I reverence and fear. Something majestic hovers before me as I determine now to wear no other fetters but the sentence of the world, to appeal to no other throne but the soul of man!

Schiller never faltered in living up to the height of that lofty resolution.

In 1786 he published "Don Carlos," one of the noblest of his works. It is an immense advance on his three former plays. It is pervaded by a lofty, enthusiastic love for humanity; it is philosophical and profound; and it is exquisitely beautiful in idea and sentiment. Schiller was now master of his mind and heart. What he thought, he could clearly express in beautiful, many-colored, glittering words. Contrast the cold-blooded, unloving and unloved, miserable, because suspicious, despot Philip II. with the self-contained, the noble and fearless Posa. How the bigoted, cruel tyrant seems to shrivel up before the unselfish and exalted eloquence of Posa, which almost sends a feeble pulse of life through the dead heart of Philip. Posa's life is in his soul, which neither death nor Philip can touch.

In this noble play, which glows with a splendid but balanced enthusiasm, Schiller puts into the mouth of Posa the following words, instinct with pathetic wisdom:

Tell him, Don Carlos, that when he is a man he must reverence the dreams of his youth.

Three years after "Don Carlos" appeared the Bastille fell. In 1787 Schiller visited Weimar, the most memorable event of his life. He was not then introduced to Goethe, but Herder and Wieland gave him a hearty greeting. Wieland was then the Nestor of German literary men. Schiller revered him as a father. He said: "We shall have bright hours: Wieland is still young when he loves." Yes, the heart of a good and wise man is never old; it is capable of love to its last pulsation. Weimar delighted Schiller so much that he thought of settling there. He writes:

You know the men of whom Germany is proud —a Herder, a Wieland, with their brethren; and one wall now encloses me and them. What excellencies are in Weimar! In this city, at least in this territory, I mean to settle for life, and at length once more to get a country.

After some months' stay at Weimar he received a cordial invitation from his friend Madame von Wolzogen to visit her at Bauerbach. During his journey there he met, at Rudolstadt, a new friend, Fraulein Lengefeld, whose attractions made him sorry to leave the place. Next year he returned, and lived in the neighborhood from May to December, visiting the Lengefeld family every day. The following are Schiller's views on marriage:

To be united to a person that shares our sorrows and our joys, that responds to our feelings, that molds herself so pliantly, so closely to our humors; reposing on her calm and warm affection, to relax our spirit from a thousand distractions, a thousand wild wishes and tumultuous passions; to dream away all the bitterness of fortune in the bosom of domestic enjoyment—this is the true delight of life.

Schiller loved Fraulein Lengefeld and his love was returned. This was the happiest time of his life. His plays were admired, he was surrounded by congenial friends, and now the love of a charming woman crowned his happiness.

Schiller's greatest friend was to be the intellectual giant Goethe. No two men could possibly differ more than these two. Goethe was ten years older than Schiller, the former being at the time of their meeting thirty-nine. Goethe was a philosopher, a poet, and, in addition, a consummate man of the world, accustomed to hold his own with distinction in the most polished and courtly society. Schiller, as I have already said, was shy and awkward, and did not show to advantage in mixed society. The mere idea of meeting the great man made Schiller nervous.

This is his own account of the impression made on him by his first introduction to Goethe:

On the whole, this personal meeting has not at all diminished the idea, great as it was, which I had previously formed of Goethe, but I doubt whether we shall ever come into any close communication with each other. Much that still interests me has already had its epoch with him. His whole nature is, from its very origin, otherwise constituted than mine; his world is not my world; our modes of conceiving things appear to be essentially different. From such a combination no secure, substantial intimacy can result. Time will try.

Time did try, and made them friends. At first Goethe thought as unfavorably of Schiller as the latter did of him, but, as the world knows, all this smoke of prejudice disappeared, and they became helpful friends and fellow laborers in the mighty field of literature.

In 1789 Schiller became professor of history at Jena. In the February following his arrival there he married Fraulein Lengefeld. The following is Schiller's delightful picture of that happy union:

Life is quite a different thing by the side of a beloved wife than when forsaken and alone, even in summer. Beautiful nature! I now for the first time fully enjoy it, live in it. The world again clothes itself around me in poetic forms; old feelings are again awakened in my breast. What a life I am leading here! I look with a glad mind around me; my heart finds a perennial contentment without it; my spirit, so fine, so refreshing a nourishment. My existence is settled in harmonious composure; not strained and impassioned, but peaceful and clear. I look to my future destiny with a cheerful heart.

As professor of history Schiller's taste for historical study was intensified. His "Revolt of the Netherlands" is full of noble thoughts; his burning love of liberty pervades every page. But I cannot stop to analyze it, and must pass on to "Wallenstein," a work of mature and enormous power. The gloomy, concentrated, war-worn Wallenstein, reading his fate, or trying to do so, in the distant stars; the lovely, the exquisite Thekla, so pure, so exalted, so utterly unselfish; and then the noble Max, living on great thoughts and breaking himself in pieces against the adamant rock of selfishness and cruelty—all these great creations, wrought out with absolute perfection of art, make the "Wallenstein" plays unique in modern dramatic literature.

The love of Thekla and Max, in the midst of all the cruelty of ambition and the hideous brutality of war, reminds one of a pure, sweet flower blooming on the side of a volcano ready to burst in lurid flame at any moment; and it does burst into flame and all-devouring lava, and the tender, perfumed petals are consumed.

Thekla is the daughter of the ambitious, fate-ridden Wallenstein. He is so consumed by pride that he defies the emperor. Max Piccolomini is sent with troops to conduct Thekla to her father's camp. The two meet and love with a deep, devoted passion, stronger than death. The ambitious father has other and higher views for his daughter. Max loves and venerates Wallenstein with boyish enthusiasm as a superior, god-like being. Max's father is sent to wrest the command from the unscrupulous Wallenstein. He is a cold-blooded diplomatist, and when Max learns his purpose he revolts and quarrels with his father.

Wallenstein is surrounded by enemies and traitors who plot to accomplish his assassination. "The Death of Wallenstein" is sublime in its gloomy power. A sense of impending woe and horror pervades every scene. The soliloquy in which the doomed Wallenstein communes with the stars and tries to tear their secret from them is one of the masterpieces of literature.

Poor Max, with despair at what he sees of

fallen human nature, all his cherished ideals dashed to pieces, rushes out at the head of his cavalry and is killed. Broken-hearted, loving Thekla goes to find Max's dead body.

Thekla. His spirit calls me: 'tis the troop
Of his true followers who offered themselves to
avenge his death; and they accuse me
Of an ignoble loitering—they would not
Forsake their leader, even in his death—they died
for him.

But shall I live?—

For me, too, was that laurel garland twined
That decks his bier. Life is an empty casket:
I throw it from me. Oh, my only hope;
To die beneath the hoofs of trampling steeds—
That is the lot of heroes upon earth!

With this speech Thekla disappears from the scene, but never from the heart of the reader.

Of "William Tell," his last and greatest work, "Joan of Arc," "The Bride of Messina," and "Mary Stuart" I can now say nothing more. One poem of his must be mentioned, "Pegasus in Harness," in which, with a master hand, he paints the never-ending struggle of the poetical, sensitive, enthusiastic temperament, in its combat with the hard, dry, selfish, matter-of-fact—or in appearance matter-of-fact—world. What renders this poem more remarkable is the presence in it of a decided vein of powerful, grim humor.

"The Cranes of Ibycus," the greatest and noblest poem by Schiller, in which there is an elevation and majesty which commands the interest of the most superficial reader, has a very interesting history. In the first sketch

of the ballad only one crane flew over Ibycus when he was murdered in the depths of the lonely wood. Goethe suggested that there should be a long line of cranes, resembling in some degree the long and awful pageant of the avenging Furies. Schiller perceived at once the beauty and grandeur of the idea and adopted it. In fact, the cranes were the companions of Ibycus in his journey. Both poet and birds were traveling in a foreign land; the cranes were blessed with wings. This sublime poem is, therefore, the beautiful result, one of many, of the friendship of Goethe and Schiller, and is altogether worthy of its noble origin.

"Whom the gods love die young." Raphael, Mozart, and Schiller belong to a band of Heaven's peculiar favorites. They are lent to this little, peddling world for a time; but Heaven soon resumes the gift it so bounteously bestowed. The King of Terrors struck no chill to the lofty soul of Schiller. His life was in his heart and intellect; his body and its claims were trifling to him. His death, which occurred on May 9, 1805, like his life, was calm and beautiful. Of his friends and family he took a touching farewell. He ordered that his funeral should be plain and simple, with no pomp, no display. When asked how he felt, he said, "Calmer and calmer." Later he sank into a deep sleep. When he awoke he said, "Many things are growing clear and plain to me." Again he closed his eyes; and his sleep deepened and deepened until it merged into the sleep of death.

WINTER BIRD-LIFE.

BY FRANK M. CHAPMAN.

OF THE AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY.

THE comparative advantages of ornithology as a field study are more evident during a northern winter than at any other season. Insects are now dormant, and the myriad of forms snugly encased in cocoon, chrysalis, and cell give no sign of life. Not a single tree-toad

or hyla can be heard, giving evidence that one of his tribe has survived winter's frosts. Flowers there are none, and one can scarcely believe that the brown stalks rising above the snow ever bore blossoms. All but the coniferous trees are leafless, and the bare, gaunt branches toss desolately in

the wind. The hand of death would seem to have been laid on the face of nature were it not for the birds. They are the only living things to be seen. Are their active, graceful forms and cheery notes ever more welcome? Was there ever a winter day so gloomy that it was not brightened by the tinkling chorus of a flock of tree sparrows? Do not the juncos twittering cosily in our evergreens express a feeling of contentment which in some way we share with them? Even the hoarse caw of the crow has a clarion ring. Our hearts go out to anything alive, and the bird that in June might have passed unnoticed is now an object of special interest.

At this time, too, the apparent frailness of birds appeals to us. How can the tiny kinglet, with a body no larger than a hickory-nut, keep the fires of life burning before wintry blasts that chill us through our furs? Where does the chickadee find refuge when blizzards are raging? Temperature, however, is of far less importance than food. Given a supply of nourishment, birds seem able to withstand the most intense cold. The character of our winter bird-life, therefore, is dependent upon the food supply. Among land birds we have hawks and owls, who feed upon small mammals and birds, woodpeckers, creepers, nut-hatches, kinglets, and chickadees, whose food consists largely of insects' eggs and larvæ, sparrows and finches, who are seed-eaters, the nut-eating blue jay and omnivorous crow, while the presence of the berry-eating waxwing, bluebird, and robin depends upon the season's supply of food.

The identification of these winter birds being the chief purpose of this paper, let us attempt it by roughly grouping them according to their more prominent characteristics of size, color, and habits. Primarily we may divide them into two groups, in the first of which we will place those the size of a bob-white or larger, that is, having a length of ten inches or more. Here belong, with the bob-white, the ruffed grouse, hawks and owls, the blue jay, crow, shrike, and robin. These birds are so unlike that no further subdivision of them seems necessary.

Sportsmen, epicures, and the bird's cheery whistle have made bob-white one of our best-known birds. As the most northern representative of a family which has its center of abundance in subtropical regions, bob-white is more susceptible to the rigors of a northern winter than more truly boreal birds. Being eminently terrestrial, heavy snows sometimes completely bury bevvies of birds, roosting, as is their wont, on the ground. They seem, however, none the worse for a living interment and have even been known to seek shelter in a snowbank, diving into it while in full flight. It is when a fall of snow is heavily crusted that bob-white is in danger. Escape from beneath his snowy coverlid is then impossible, and whole flocks have been found frozen where they had roosted.

Ruffed grouse are more northern birds than bob-whites, our species, commonly known as the partridge, being the most southern representative of a group or subfamily which is distributed throughout the northern parts of both hemispheres. They are therefore more hardy than bob-whites, and their habit of roosting in trees prevents their being snowed in. In the fall, grouse develop horny lateral fringes on their toes which doubtless serve the purpose of snowshoes. In the spring these comb-like pectinations are lost—a singular instance of seasonal adaptation of structure.

Hawks are so wary that, as a rule, they can be satisfactorily identified only after one has learned their distinguishing marks by the examinations of specimens, and they may therefore be omitted from this brief sketch.

Owls, during the day, are generally observed by chance. Occasionally their sworn foes, the crows, betray their presence by a clamorous attack. But if one would look for a barred owl with fair chances of success, let him search the ground beneath some densely foliated evergreen for the "pellets" of hair and bones which all owls disgorge. Once seen he may be easily recognized by his barred, dark brown and white back, striped under parts, absence of ear-tufts, and black eyes. His loud *whoo-whoo-whoo*, *who-whoo*, *to-whoo-ah* is not to

be mistaken for the call of any other species, but is not often heard during the winter.

The hollow limb of an old apple tree is the screech owl's favorite winter abode, or he may take possession of some snug nook about our dwellings, living there for years without our knowing of his presence. His small size—length nine and a half inches—and prominent ear-tufts distinguish him, but his low, tremulous, and to my ear musical whistle would surely never be called a "screech" by an unprejudiced listener. Both these owls feed largely on mice and insects and are therefore to be ranked as useful species.

Crows are not the owls' only enemies. Blue jays also never lose an opportunity to mob an owl when they discover his retreat. In any event it is always worth while to investigate the cause of an outcry among the jays; even if we fail to find it we shall be repaid by watching the jays themselves. Singularly human-like are these handsome blue and white crested birds, with vocabularies which seem exhaustless. They appear to find an especial pleasure in mimicing the cries of hawks, always, in my experience, selecting the species most common in the region.

Many birds that are far from social during the summer are eminently gregarious throughout the winter. Crows never nest in colonies, but their winter roosts may be frequented by two or three hundred thousand birds who have repaired to the same place for many years. In the morning they radiate over the country, flying low in search of food; in the afternoon we see them high in the air, returning directly to the roost "as the crow flies."

The shrike and robin close our list of common birds ten or more inches in length. The former cannot be called a common bird in the accepted sense of the word, but his habits and the absence of vegetation render him conspicuous. He generally chooses some exposed perch from which, hawk-like, he can watch for prey. Small birds and meadow mice are his victims and he often impales them on a thorn or hangs them by the neck in a suitable crotch. The shrike

is ten inches long, gray or brown above, wings and tail black marked with white, under parts generally finely barred with black, bill hooked and hawk-like.

Robins are irregular winter visitants as far north as southern Canada, the question of food most actively regulating their movements. In sheltered localities where cedar, dogwood, or viburnum berries abound small numbers are reasonably sure to be present.

This brings us to the birds less than ten inches in length.

The birds in this group may be placed in two sections, in the first of which we will include those having white or gray more or less conspicuous in the plumage of the upper parts or tail, as the downy and hairy woodpeckers, white-breasted nuthatch, chickadee, horned lark, snowflake, and junco.

On a winter morning when one has been vainly listening for some sign of life, what a welcome sound is the tapping of a woodpecker! Doubtless it is a downy excavating his breakfast of larvæ, and we follow his tap-tapping just for the satisfaction of seeing the black and white fellow at work; or he may be repairing his winter quarters, for he fashions a home in which to pass the colder months as well as one in which to nest. The male has a red band across the nape; in the female this mark is white.

The hairy woodpecker is as a rule less common than the downy in the Eastern States. He may be known chiefly by his larger size, the downy measuring six and three fourths inches in length while the hairy is about two and a half inches longer.

With the downy we may often find associated, in the winter, another climbing bird, the white-breasted nuthatch. Seen creeping over tree trunks, he has at first glance the appearance of a woodpecker, but closer observation will show that he differs in many points, the most striking of which is that he climbs downward as well as upward and that he does not use his tail as a support. The tail-feathers, therefore, instead of being stiffened and pointed at the end are soft and rounded. The white-breast's mode of progression, black cap, blue-gray back, white cheeks, and characteristic note of

yank yank combine to render his identification both easy and certain.

If one finds the downy and white-breast in partnership it is quite probable that a third member of the firm is the chickadee. During the winter these three birds seem to have something in common which draws them together. Perhaps it may be a feeling of loneliness which prompts them to seek each other's companionship. However, they seem to be on the best of terms, and one of the pleasant experiences of a mid-winter stroll is to encounter this trio. The chickadee will doubtless announce himself in perfectly intelligible English, and to the usual *chick-a-dee* notes he may add further remarks whose meaning is less clear, or even whistle a brief tune of two melodious notes. If he should be silent, which is far from likely, he may be known by his black cap, gray back, and whitish under parts.

These are birds of the woods, and one might imagine that all our smaller winter birds would live in or near some growth which would afford them protection; but the horned lark and snowflake are at home on wide plains or the open country near the sea. They are found in flocks and are not infrequently associated, and although abundant in favorable localities are rare or entirely wanting in others. Both are eminently terrestrial birds, rarely if ever alighting on anything higher than a fence. The horned lark, or shore lark, is about seven and three quarters inches long, sandy brown above, throat pale yellow, abdomen white, a band across the breast, cheek stripes, and two small tufts or "horns" on either side of the head black, tail black, the outer feathers white.

The snowflake, or snow-bunting, is about an inch smaller and is much whiter than the shore lark, hence the name white snowbird, which is often applied to it. It comes late in the season and is not often found south of the latitude of Long Island.

Of all our winter birds doubtless juncos and tree sparrows are the most abundant. The former arrives from the north late in September and remains until May; the latter comes in October and stays until

April. Although termed winter visitors, they are with us, therefore, half the year. Juncos, or snowbirds, are usually found in the vicinity of evergreens, in which they pass the nights. Their happy twitter and contented *chew-chew* as they rest cosily in their snug quarters are among the cheery sounds of winter. Juncos are about six and a quarter inches in length, slate-gray with a white abdomen and white outer tail-feathers, which show conspicuously in flight.

The second section of the group containing birds less than ten inches in length includes those in which white or gray is not conspicuous in the plumage of the upper parts or tail. The members of this section are the tree sparrow, song sparrow, winter wren, brown creeper, golden-crowned kinglet, purple finch, goldfinch, crossbill, redpoll, waxwing, and bluebird.

Tree sparrows seem even more social than the juncos. Their favorite winter resorts are weedy fields which furnish them with a supply of seeds. The good done by granivorous birds in winter in devouring the seeds of noxious weeds can be appreciated on reading the estimate of Professor Beal, of the Department of Agriculture, that in Iowa tree sparrows consume 875 tons of weed seeds during the winter season.

When feeding, tree sparrows maintain a pleasing conversational twitter in which one can often distinguish the words "too-late, too-late"; but their tardiness, if such it is, seems to cause them no regret, for merrier birds one cannot find. They are about the size of the junco, striped above with reddish brown, grayish, and black, with white under parts and in the center of the breast a single dusky spot.

As the tree sparrow or winter chippy replaces our common chippy in the winter, so the winter wren appears just as our summer house wren departs. He is smaller than the house wren, with a shorter tail, and prefers some old wood-pile or brush-heap in the woods to the handsome residence in some bird-house his cousin has recently vacated. His small size, activity, and erected tail render him easily distinguishable. His call is a rather nasal *chimp, chimp*, which

suggests the song sparrow's characteristic note, but is uttered more quickly.

This sparrow may sometimes be found inhabiting the wren's brushy retreat, and it also frequents dense hedge-rows. It is a permanent resident from New England southward and is cherished by all lovers of bird music as the first songster of spring. Even warm days in January tempt it to voice its emotions in song, and by March 1 it may be heard in numbers. A black spot on the center of the breast, formed by the confluence of some of the numerous spots of the under parts, is a characteristic marking. The back is striped with reddish brown and black, and in size the bird agrees with the junco.

Some difficulty may be experienced in finding the brown creeper, but, once seen, its identification is certain. Its brown and black striped back harmonizes so closely with the bark of trees over which it climbs in search of insects' eggs and larvæ, and its squeaky notes are so weak, that the bird may easily escape observation.

The call-note of the golden-crowned kinglet is even more insignificant than that of the creeper, being a fine, high, squeaky chirp, practically inaudible to all but trained ears. The bird is exceedingly tame and one may approach it closely enough to see clearly its gold, orange, and black crown.

Birds' names are often misleading, and he who during the winter expects to find a goldfinch wearing a yellow costume will look for this bird in vain. At this season the males are clad in the duller plumage of the female, being yellowish olive above and soiled whitish below. Both sexes are now usually associated in small flocks and aside from their color may be known by their sweet chirping calls and bounding, undulating flight.

The purple finch is even less appropriately named. The so-called "purple" is a dull red approximating the popular idea of "crushed strawberry," and at the best is worn only by adult males. The young males and females are streaked with

brownish and grayish above and are white streaked with brownish below. This species has a fondness for the buds of trees, and when perching is conspicuous on these leafless branches. When on the wing it utters a characteristic creaking note.

The crossbill and redpoll, however, may fairly claim descriptive and applicable titles. The former has the tips of the mandibles crossed, an apparent abnormality which is, nevertheless, of real service to the bird in extracting the seeds from pine cones. The latter has, in any plumage, a bright red crown-cap and in adult males this color appears on the breast, the rest of the body being striped with black. In habits the redpolls resemble to some extent both goldfinches and purple finches.

Adult male crossbills also have red in their plumage, being dull blood color, but young males and females are greenish. So closely do they adhere to a diet of pine seeds that they are seldom seen far from coniferous trees. Both crossbills and redpolls are of irregular occurrence in winter, sometimes coming in large numbers and at others being rare or wholly absent. As a rule they do not venture much south of southern New England, though in mountainous districts crossbills are known to nest as far south as South Carolina.

Our list closes with the waxwing and bluebird, summer birds whose presence in winter north of the latitude of New York City is more or less dependent upon the season's food supply. The waxwing is brown, with a yellow band across the end of the tail, a conspicuous crest, and, usually, singular sealing-wax-like tips at the ends of the shorter wing-feathers. The bluebird receives an adequate description in its name.

There are other birds which the experienced field student may discover during the winter, but the beginner will find that the ones mentioned here will furnish him with abundant occupation for the season, and the chances are that before he is on speaking terms with them spring will have brought a list of newcomers.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

ORPAH AND RUTH.

And Orpah kissed her mother-in-law: but Ruth clave to her.—*Ruth i. 14.*

[*December 5.*]

THIS is the introduction to one of the most delightful pastorals to be found in any language, a poem in everything save meter, and with the charm of an antique simplicity, with a pictorial vividness and a home-telling power of truthfulness to nature, to which neither rhythm nor rime could add a grain of sense or eloquence. Thanks for this book of Ruth, set in the midst of the Old Testament like a jewel within a rim of gold, small as a gem, but as bright as a gem, and as clean-cut and clear-polished as ever left the workshop of a poetical lapidary! Generally, in reading the books of the Old Testament, we see but little of the inner life of the people. There is a screen of political events which shuts it out from us, except at a few occasional points, where we can peep through some narrow loophole and get a few glimpses. But here in this small book there is no jealous lattice-work in the window, and the eye can settle itself unforbidden upon all the little domestic and social economies which are elsewhere curtained round with privacy. Our present purpose requires, however, only the outlines of the first part of the story.

There was a famine in the land of Israel, and it bore hard upon the sons of Ephraim in Bethlehem-Judah, and Elimelech, probably a man advanced in years and not undistinguished in his family and kinship, went into the country of Moab, taking with him his wife and two sons. The Moabites, as you know, idolatrous as they were, were blood connections of the Israelites, and held a rich and prosperous territory across the Jordan. They were often at war with the Israelites, and yet they seem never to have quite forgotten the bond of consanguinity,

and they often gave a hospitable welcome to their neighbors and kinsmen in times of pressure and calamity. To the fertile valleys and the multitudinous flocks of Moab, Elimelech fled from the jaws of famine.

There is no significance in Elimelech's journey, though there is great significance in its terminus among the old enemies of Israel, and we may believe that only a hard necessity would have driven him thither. We are told how the family remained in Moab ten years. Elimelech died there; and then the sons married there, and they too died there, and Naomi was left alone with her two daughters-in-law. This triple affliction of the poor widow seems to have been regarded by her as a judgment from God, as if she believed that God had thus punished her family for entering into even a temporary compact with a race of uncircumcised heathen. "The hand of the Lord," she exclaims, "hath gone out against me!" and she resolves to return to her own country and end her days in the shadow of Jehovah's sanctuary.

[*December 12.*]

Now comes the artless discussion with her two daughters-in-law in which we see so beautifully brought out the traits of two diverse characters—one commonplace, without a tone which surpasses the average female character, the other touched with a powerful hand, exalted to the very ideal of feminine grace and feminine faithfulness, and finished with one of those rare strokes of conspiring genius and felicitous art which make a picture immortal. Naomi evidently shrinks from the thought of taking her Moabitish daughters into the land of her fathers, though this shrinking is by no means so strong as to show itself on the surface of her mournful pleading with them. On the contrary, she seems only concerned, with a true mother's

self-renouncing affection, for their welfare. Her heart has learned to build itself upon their love, and she yearns for their companionship.

Probably, in this household of Israel, they have left off their idolatrous practices, and suffered their old religion to drop into a slumberous, inarticulate passiveness; but it is plain they have yet gone no further than this, and have made no open renunciation of the gods of Moab, or any profession of faith in the Jehovah of their husbands and their mother-in-law. They are come now to the crisis in their history, and just as, when a man is halting between two opinions, his decision is often reached, not by the royal road of reason and argument and reflection, but by some short cut of emotion, affection, or sympathy, so for these two daughters everything hangs upon the impromptu response which love has to make to the noble and self-denying woman whose tears are refuting the broken voice which bids them leave her. Only one of them has hesitated at all. She sees her mother's tears, but she has a keener sense of her mother's words. She seems quite willing to be persuaded, and at length goes up to her mother and kisses her, and turns her back upon her forever.

Not so with the other; she stands as if rooted to her place, and when Naomi, in tenderly sad and disconsolate words, says to her, "Thy sister-in-law is gone back unto her people and unto her gods; return thou unto thy sister-in-law," Ruth breaks out with her impassioned yet steadily deliberate vow: "Whither thou goest, I will go; where thou lodgest, I will lodge; thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God; where thou diest will I die, and there will I be buried. The Lord do so to me, and more also, if aught but death part thee and me."

In spite of the three thousand years which have piled their dust and ashes over this brave daughter of Moab, the mother of kings and the star-gleam of a line of glory that rose and flashed over the plains to Bethlehem, the winds have not swept her words away. Passion has been speaking since in all tongues, love has been pour-

ing itself in song and in dirge, human tenderness has wreathed itself with the choicest garlands of eloquence; yet the world has not found, the heart has not answered so sweet a spirit, wrapped in such a power of graceful and compelling language, as that which breathes and flames in these words of Ruth. We can tell when we are in mid-ocean by the color of the water, and we can tell by the intense coloring of this speech what depths of faith and loyalty and love lay in the character of Ruth. Worthy was she, thrice worthy, to become the remote mother of our Lord and Savior, and to set up for us, back in the dim centuries, a radiant image of love, never eclipsed save when her mighty descendant after the flesh was lifted upon the cross.

[December 19.]

BUT I ask you now to examine the contrast between the two characters presented to us in this narrative, and to judge whether there be not something instructive here which we may learn.

In the first sister we have the impersonation of what we shall call the sentiment of habit and attachment, which passes everywhere, in characters like hers, under the name of love, but which is in very truth not love, but the mere sentiment of it, the difference between the two being just the difference between a coal of fire and a lucifer match, out of which you can get a fire only by friction. Blow upon your live coal and it blushes out redder and redder and waxes hotter and hotter; blow upon your lucifer and it goes out into darkness. Sentiment of any kind is a thin gloss which lies on the surface of feeling like a varnish; it does not go beyond the senses, it does not strike through the interior tissues and color its way down to the heart. It comes in from without, from circumstances, from education, from the daily phases of life—a mere motion of the soul which takes up and repeats the motion of the world around it, and which looks like deep, genuine feeling, just as water in the Croton reservoir looks like water from a living spring. And, alas! how much mere Croton water there is in the

channels of human nature and of society; how much semblance of feeling that proves only disguised affectation; how much show of sympathy that vanishes like the glittering gossamers of the morning; how much shallow love that evaporates into idle profession, and ends only in a kiss like Orpah's!

And I remark, in the first place, that the mere sentiment of love goes no further than a kiss. It throws itself on the lips. It warms itself in the eye. It learns from use and custom alone how to play on the keys of passion and produce some weak but imposing imitation of the genuine music of the heart. There is no muscle in such love; it is all nerve, and, like every other feeling which has no conductor but the nerves, it thrills only in spasms, and is a thing of times and seasons.

Can you not find examples in the sons and daughters and brothers and sisters of many a household? Can you not find them in the members of the church, in those whose affection, sometimes flaring up like a well-shaken torch, is yet as intermittent as the light of a firefly, and needs a continual puff of fresh air and a constant brushing away of dead cinders to keep it alive? Ask such love for a kiss, and you will get it, but ask it for that profound, sustained sympathy which the thirsty soul craves at times, and goes searching for like a well in the desert, and you find it not. When the daily tide in the household runs on smoothly, and there is no strain on the old cables of habit and duty, it is easy for son or daughter to pay the whole exterior homage of love; but let the way grow rough, and life be jostled and jarred with cares and anxieties and worries, then comes the test of affection—then does all feeling that merely simulates love give its last kiss and turn away forever.

And when I look into the homes of poverty, hard, grinding, coarse, sordid poverty, where the children of toil pick their scant bread from their own bones and eat it not alone in the sweat of their foreheads but in bitter heart-sweat—when I look there I do not wonder I see so little love, but that I find so much that puts to shame the polished egotism that usurps the name

of love in so many higher places. For the poor have wounds which no kisses can heal. They live in an atmosphere that chokes and strangles all sentiment and all superficiality of romantic feeling; and if love springs up with that envelope around it I know that it must be, not a sentiment of love, but a religion of love, pure as God's highest ether and deep as man's largest capacity. And I remark, in the second place, that no mere sentiment of love is able to stand before the rush of trial and the stumbling-blocks of difficulty. We want sinews to do that, not nerves alone.

Probably Naomi, before she called up her children to take her leave of them, knew no difference between them in their attachment to her; Orpah was as Ruth. But the difference came out when the poor widow, in the candor of her own affection, set herself on one side and interest on the other, and asked her daughters to choose between the two. Then was the time for Ruth to speak out, and then was the time when Orpah sank into silence and all the sweets of her love expired in a kiss.

When a gallant warrior lay dying on the field in the arms of his son, seeing the enemy in the distance approaching the spot where he lay he bade his son leave him and seek safety in flight; but when his son appeared but too eager to take his advice the father cried out, "Will you leave me, my son? Must I die here alone?" How many hearts have sent up that mournful cry when misfortune and sorrow and trouble have thrown them on the field and left them there to perish!—hearts of forsaken mothers and fathers, hearts of abandoned friends, hearts of Christian brothers from whom every face of sympathy, every hand of help has withdrawn itself; and under the cloud of adversity, in the thick smoke of life's dangerous battle, how rare is the human love that stands fast by the fallen and throws its arms around the sufferer, and out of the rich fulness, and with the quiet promptitude of a resolute and unterrified heart, exclaims with Ruth, "Where thou goest I will go, and where thou diest will I die."

[December 26.]

AND if trial and peril and tribulation came to all of us, what swaths of desolation they would leave among us—what windrows of dead branches, what heartless farewell kisses, as the sole remains of that empty sentiment which hides itself in a gauzy ostentation of love! I remark, finally, that the great difference between the mere sentiment of love and a vital, deeply earnest, devoted affection is one which religion only can explain.

I do not deny that there is ardent, clinging, deathless love, which knows little of a true religion; there is a pure, soft humanity of love, which gathers up into one bundle of fibers all that is strongest in the passionate instincts of our nature, while yet it has not a single string in it that can awake a note of those higher strains which breathe over life the music of the spheres, and wed our hearts together in a symphony sublimer than man's earthly passions can ever know. I do not deny the existence of such a love, but it touches us only around a segment of our being; it is too narrow to take us in the whole sweep of our existence and our destiny. It is only the *vox humana* in the organ; it is only the flower on the stalk; it is the love of joyous smiles and April showers of tears; a love for life, not for death—for the blooming hours and the flitting shadows, not for the dark, deep, voiceless night of trouble and affliction. It is a love that leaves out the soul, and, with all its fragrance and its beauty, has no healing in it for man's sharpest aches and sternest needs—those that meet him when he is called to leave his household idols—and all that an unreligious love can give him is a poor kiss upon his dying lips. Between this and a love which draws to itself all the elements of religion there is that distinction which you may see between Orpah and Ruth.

Even the names of those sisters are suggestive of this distinction. The one is Orpah, "young vitality, youthful freshness," and the other is Ruth, "friend of God," hinting to us the contrast which exists between the uncertainty and inconstancy of the most vigorous human powers and the steadfastness of a heart which is stayed on

God. Could Orpah have said everything else, there was one thing she could not say, "Thy God shall be my God"; and therefore she turned again to her idols. And if mere human love gets its tenderest beauty, and its broadest scope, and its most unswerving loyalty from religion, I ask how there can be any true love for religion, for Christ, for the church, where the essential facts of religion are wanting? And this touches the case of many an unconverted man, who stands to-day, like Orpah, divided between his old gods and his old friends and the divine call to a Christian life.

There is a sentiment in favor of Jesus, but it is too weak to take up the cross of self-denial. There is a genuine emotion that feels all the solemnity of the choice which the sinner is called to make, and sometimes rises and glows almost to the white heat of decision. There is a surge of penitent feeling which sweeps over the heart at the remembrance of the past, and almost breaks away at times the dikes of pride, and shame, and selfishness that constrain it. It would be strange if men did not have such moments of tumultuous feeling, when conscience kindles thought and eternity bends its awful frown upon the sinner.

But there is no virtue in all this. Let no such man flatter himself that he comes nearer the kingdom because his sentiments are in favor of it. Let no Orpah delude herself into the belief that she is true and faithful because she seals her profession with a kiss. It is not a feeling toward God that brings the sinner to the cross, but a feeling from God, and that is a grace which only repentance and self-renunciation can bring. There is no true love for Christ that does not spring from Christ; there is no affection for the church which does not cling to the church, and plant itself within it. There is no loyalty to our brethren which does not carry us into the midst of them, with our hands ready to work, our hearts beating with sympathy, and our tongues prompt to declare, like Ruth, "The Lord do so to me, and more also, if aught but death part thee and me."—*Rev. P. B. Haughwout, A. M.*

THE TREND OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

IN the century and a quarter of its existence the United States of America has become the greatest agricultural nation of the world; and, what is less generally recognized, it has become the greatest manufacturing nation of the world. Nine years ago the distinguished English statistician, Mulhall, said that the value of our annual manufactures placed us not only at the head of industrial nations, but so far ahead that we had only to increase our annual output one fourth to make it worth double the annual product of Great Britain, our nearest competitor. Thirty years ago we supplied the world with only one seventh of its coal while Great Britain contributed one half of the product. For five years past we have produced one third of the total coal supply and Great Britain's output barely exceeds that of the United States. American pig iron has been exported to England because cheaper than the product of Great Britain's own smelters. We produce an eighth more iron and a quarter more steel than Great Britain, and it is one of our greatest industrial victories that we have wrested from that country the distinction it enjoyed of being the fountainhead of the world's iron and steel supply.

The United States surpasses all other countries also in the production of gold and silver. One of our copper mines produces a tenth of the world's entire supply and this country furnishes over half of the total copper product. Most of the petroleum of the world is produced in this country, the Russian product, large as it is, hardly entering into competition with it in the general markets. Our colossal agricultural development has enabled us to become the largest dependence of great nations that are not able to raise food enough for their needs. We have been so preeminent as food exporters that we have been called a nation of agriculturists to distin-

guish us from the nations where manufactures predominate; and the reason is not far to seek why, in our foreign commerce, we have supplied the world chiefly with food products and raw materials and have lagged behind the leading European nations in the value of the manufactures we have spread abroad.

Our country, in the past ten decades, has been very busy developing its vast sources of natural wealth. Nearly all the lines of progress have been simultaneously advanced. Our agricultural progress has been no more rapid than our manufacturing growth, but this industrial development, remarkable as it has been, has not kept pace with the abnormal increase in our population. The number of our people was quadrupled in the first fifty years after 1790 and it has more than doubled in the past thirty years, and we are a people who spend more *per capita* for houses, food, and clothing than any other nation in the world. So it happens that, with a net value of manufactured products of four and a half billions a year, we are not yet able to make nearly all the things our own people require, and have to import large quantities of the manufactures of other nations. The time is not far distant when we shall be able to supply the home demand, in most respects, from our own shops and factories. Hitherto we have had all we could do in turning raw material into manufactured products for home consumption, and this work alone has brought us into the lead of manufacturing countries.

This is one reason why we have not sought wide foreign fields for our manufactures. Then, too, for most of our national life our industries have been highly protected, with the result that our manufactures have been greatly stimulated, and the higher wages we have paid to industrial workers have enabled them to maintain a

higher standard of living. This national policy has, however, decreased our ability to compete in the world's markets with the manufactures of other nations where lower wages and lower standards of living prevail. Under these circumstances it is fortunate that we have not, in a broad sense, cared to compete with other nations in the field of foreign commerce; that we have had our hands full attending to our own development and supplying our own needs with home-made commodities.

The time has come at last when the United States is able to turn its attention to securing its due share of foreign commerce. Our population is no longer increasing with colossal strides, but the era of prosperity now dawning is certain to give our vast manufacturing interests renewed impetus. We see no prospect before us that we shall reach the condition of those European countries which have been scrambling for new lands in all the corners of the earth because they must have export trade or perish. Our cotton, provisions, wheat, mineral oils, and cattle, of which we now export about \$2,000,000 worth a day, will probably continue to be the chief elements of our foreign trade. Our internal commerce may always far exceed our foreign trade. Our own coasting and lake trade to-day is more than double the coasting trade of Great Britain, and far surpasses the external and internal commerce of most other countries. The United States is its own best customer for manufactured products and always will be. But we are making more and more things that foreign nations want and which we can sell in spite of the fiercest competition. So our merchants are beginning to reach out in all directions for foreign markets in which to sell our manufactures; and no one thing has stimulated the quest for foreign fields of profit more largely than the reports from our consuls on commercial opportunities and conditions abroad, which are issued monthly by the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of State.

It is impossible here to enumerate the many ways in which our resources, ingenu-

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ity, and inventions are enabling us, at last, to send many manufactures even into industrial Europe to compete with its home wares. We can only mention as illustrations that to-day no one can make iron and steel more cheaply than we do; that our edged tools, much of our machinery used in industrial processes, and many other inventions are widely preferred to those of other countries; and certain improvements in our methods of cotton manufacturing have overcome the vaunted advantage of England's moist climate, enabling her to produce the best woolen yarn in the world. The rivalry for Russia's trade is most significant, for it shows that Germany, the most energetic and successful trader of Europe at this time, regards us as her most formidable competitor in the Russian field.

Russia is now a most important field for any manufacturing country that can get into it. There are 94,000,000 souls in European Russia and one of their greatest needs is tools and machinery which they cannot make themselves and must needs buy elsewhere. When Russia's railroads, now building, are completed, when cotton manufacturing is further developed and the plains of Siberia and the metalliferous mountain regions are more accessible, Russia's needs, particularly for iron and steel products, will enrich the nations that supply them. Germany's special aim at present is to supply that country with agricultural and other machinery, and her economic writers are urging that special efforts be made to overcome the powerful and advancing American competition.

Superiority of products, or products adapted in one way or another to meet the taste and demand of a large public, will make their way in spite of high tariffs. German merchants have sought in vain to create a demand for the refined petroleum of Russia and Galicia, and keep out the American product. The effort has been a complete failure because the German people firmly believe that the European petroleum cannot compare, as an illuminant, with our oil. This was a futile attempt, by artificial pressure and restriction,

to force trade into unnatural channels. Our consuls are constantly telling manufacturers that if they can meet foreign demand with superior American products they will have no difficulty in selling their goods in any part of Europe. The most promising sign of the coming extension of our export trade is that not a few of our manufacturers and exporters are beginning a scientific study of the needs and demands of the customers they are seeking. They are finding that the whole subject of the export trade, even to the packing of goods, requires the most painstaking study. They cannot pack commodities for many Latin-American ports, for instance, as they would were they shipping to Chicago. Wharves are a rarity in those southern ports; vessels anchor at a distance and are lightered by small boats plunging through the surf, and packages not covered by water-proof wrappings are liable to damage. Our merchants are finding that even the color and design of labels are a matter of importance if their goods are intended for the Chinese market, and shoe manufacturers are learning that the goods they sell here are not exactly adapted for the Australian trade.

It is with our iron, steel, and woods, turned into various forms of machinery and implements, that we are beginning to tempt European trade. It is a fact worth noting when our tailors' shears are sold in Sheffield, the head-center of all manufactures of edged tools. Some of England's best colonies, like New Zealand, are now declaring that they prefer our edged implements to those of British make. We have sold our pig iron in England; and Russia, great as her iron resources are, is still importing more than half of the pig iron she uses. There was something akin to consternation in the English midlands, early this year, when American-made steel billets were delivered there at \$2.50 a ton cheaper than the lowest British price; and in this month of October, 1897, we have underbid the British makers, who wish to supply Glasgow with cast-iron pipes, by \$5 a ton, and we'll pay the freight.

But we can never hope to compete with

Europe, in her home market, on the thousand and one things she produces at almost starvation wages. American manufacturers have no such ambition, for it would be futile, and they can see in Europe opportunities in larger lines that are really worth while. See Russia with her 5,000,000 cotton spindles, her 350,000 acres in Central Asia now growing cotton, her 5,000,000 acres there that are adapted for cotton raising, and her lands in Caucasia already yielding 22,000,000 pounds of that staple a year. Russia is now consuming in her mills a tenth of all the cotton produced in Europe and America. She wants to compete with England in her cotton manufactures, and to do so she needs the gins, pickers, cards, and other cotton machinery that have been successfully used in the United States. "By some one," writes our consul, "these things must be supplied." And it is only in such manufactures and by the aid of such inventions as these that we can hope to do a large business with Europe outside of the food staples and mineral products we send her.

We are sending to the miners of South Africa a large part of the machinery they are using. The awakening Orient also will give us our full share of opportunity. China, with her era of railroad building just dawning, and Japan, with the remarkable changes occurring there, will be closely watched for new trade openings. The people of Japan have hitherto been clothed in cottons imported from India. To-day they are beginning to wear woollens, and wool is being imported to supply the mills they are erecting. It has long been said that when a Japanese once acquires a taste for the food of the western nations he cannot do without it. The common people who have lived almost exclusively on rice and fish are now taking to meat. Fathers who can afford to do so give their children meat once a day. The new Japanese line of steamers that has begun to ply to Australia expects to carry many cattle from that continent to Japan. The Japanese cavalry horses have been decided to be too small for military purposes and the attempt to

improve the breed has practically failed. Our consuls are calling attention to these opportunities to send horses, meat, and wool to Japan; and they add that Japan's small territory and 40,000,000 people make it practically certain that her trade demands for the necessities of life will outrun her productive capacity and that the United States will have a splendid opening in that field.

Among our most brilliant opportunities are those our own part of the world affords, and we are moving with energy and wisdom to occupy fully the vast field, a part of which is at our very doors. The Bureau of American Republics and the other agencies that have been set on foot, largely through its inspiration, are among the best schemes ever devised for promoting trade. We are already selling British Honduras nearly twice as much as she imports from the mother country. We have knit ourselves closely to Mexico by railroads and steamship lines and are supplying half of her imports and receiving three fourths of her exports; and yet we continue to pay Mexico in money for sixty-five per cent of the products she sends us because she long ago acquired the habit of sending to Europe for her imports. The development of communications with Central America is also giving us a great advantage in trade. Three years ago Great Britain supplied most of the commodities imported by Costa Rica, but now we have outstripped the British manufacturers. The West Indian colonies of Great Britain are in a large measure dependent upon this country for the necessities of life, purchasing about \$10,000,000 worth of our food supplies and manufactures every year and paying for them in their products. These facts show how the proximity of these countries has aided the development of our trade relations with them.

We have not the same geographical advantage on the Atlantic seaboard of South America, for most of that coast is nearer to the Old World than to our own Atlantic seaboard. Pernambuco, Brazil, for instance, is hardly farther from Southampton, Eng-

land, than from New York City. So along the thousands of miles of coast-line south of Venezuela Europe can trade as cheaply as we can, as far as the cost of transportation affects the price of commodities; and Great Britain has the advantage of large vested interests in the South American countries and long-established and well-rooted trade relations. Our merchants in the South American trade firmly believe that the concerted and vigorous efforts now making in this country will overcome the advantages that Europe has secured and give us a large part of that trade. The Bureau of American Republics, by promoting a closer association of the Latin-American countries with one another and with the United States, and by collecting and distributing information of practical value to all concerned, is assisting in a marked degree to increase the volume of business between our country and the republics south of us.

In some respects all the trading nations may emulate Germany's example with advantage. No country ever sprang in so short a time to the front rank in foreign commerce as Germany has done. The excellence of her technical schools, where methods of metal working and other industrial processes are taught, her permanent exhibitions of the commodities entering into her export and import trade, her expeditions of experts sent to foreign fields to promote German trade and learn all facts that will profit her exporters, her careful study of the peculiarities and demands of her customers, and the avidity with which she seeks new customers, are most important elements in the progress she has made; and some of her people are not above resorting to devices that are unfair even in rivals. Much as she wants our raw materials and food supplies, her Agrarian party circulates the boldest slanders as to their quality. Germany needs these commodities from us, but she is doing her level best to keep out all our manufactures which she thinks she can herself provide.

In this last respect we seem certainly destined to follow Germany's example; for

the trend of American industrial effort will be, first and foremost, in the direction of supplying to our own millions everything they desire within the limit of our manifold resources. The day is coming when most of the cotton that now goes to Liverpool or Moscow will not leave our southern states until New Orleans, Mobile, Charleston, and other cities have it ready to export in the form of manufactured goods. Even with our present population, there is still large room for expanding our home trade and great opportunities for reducing our volume of imports by the improvement of our own processes and results, so that we shall not think of buying abroad what we can procure just as well at home. Our manufactures are now predominating over agriculture. As in Germany, our towns are now gaining population at the expense of the country, and very many of our products for home consumption and for export are going to be cheapened in price by improved methods and practicable economies that will satisfy capital with the profit it reaps while furnishing commodities at lower cost; just as refined petroleum is now supplied to the consumer at a fraction of its former price because pipe-lines and other great improvements have made it possible.

England can count the years when her coal supply will be exhausted. Long before that day comes we can supply the world with all the coal it wants, and all the iron and steel. Improvements in ocean carriage are annihilating time and distance.

We are no longer far removed from the great marts abroad. Within two years American-built ships have made it possible to lay the laces of Calais on the shelves of Chicago shops in ten days. It has been done and better will follow.

Another potent influence that will stimulate our foreign trade is to be the rehabilitation of our ocean shipping. Many reasons have been given for the decline of our merchant marine, but the chief reason is because our capital found so much profitable employment in the development of our country that it had no time or inducement to compete with Europe for the domain of the oceans. But our railroad system and the other greatest features of our industrial development are at last unsurpassed or unequaled. We have time now to build ships, we have been building \$25,000,000 worth every year for our navy for the past ten years, and we have turned out some of the best ocean liners afloat. We shall be in future the greatest producers of cheap steel, and it was cheap steel and iron that laid the foundation of England's supremacy as a builder of ships. Before many years it will be no longer a fact, ludicrous as it seems in view of our large commerce, that for a twelvemonth not an American ship passed through the Suez Canal, that the port of Buenos Ayres has not seen an American vessel for a year, and that thirty years have elapsed since Hamburg, the third greatest port in the world, has seen the stars and stripes at a masthead.

THE EASTERN POLICY OF GERMANY.

BY G. BATTISTA GUARINI.

TRANSLATED FROM "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

WHEN William II. took in his strong hands the reins of the German Empire he found a new canon of the eastern policy of his fatherland in the treaty of Berlin. Beginning with the Congress of Reichenbach, held in July, 1790, where occurred the first manifestation of the policy of Germany in regard to the

East, and where Prussia saw its ambiguous diplomacy crowned with one of the most notable failures in the history of statescraft, and reaching down to the London Conference of 1840, held on the Egyptian question, it can be truly said that that kingdom, and consequently the whole nation, had no logical, well-developed plan of dealing with

this most perplexing problem. Guizot roughly called the Prussian ministers satellites of Russia, and this harsh saying might have been repeated with much semblance of truth down through all the agitation which resulted in the Crimean War.

The treaty of 1878 broke with this long and by no means glorious tradition. Count Bismarck had seen, with the rigid analysis of a statistician, the destiny of his country, opposition to Slavic expansion. And for this reason, in spite of a century-old friendship, in spite of dynastic interminglings, in spite of the Dreikaiserbund,¹ Germany and Russia are fated by their ethnic characteristics to reciprocal aversion and enmity. The flood of Germanic influence which, powerful and vigorous, spread over the wild country of the Slav for so many generations, had been incited, tolerated, and suffered through a deep-laid plan. Peter the Great saw, with the intuition of a virile, innovating genius, that one people of Europe, more than the others, was endowed with the tenacity to accomplish the gradual development of his unformed empire. So he attracted the Teuton to Russia. Ever since his day the German element has entered into the transformation of the Russian people. But intellectual subjection has never yet generated affection and gratitude in semi-barbarous races. Under the apparent submission to German ideas brooded a profound antipathy. Only need and the desire for a grandiose development of the country could conceal the latent aversion and rancor.

While the Germanic and neo-Latin peoples, though originally antagonists and often divided by wars and violent feuds, still combined in the great work of defending western civilization against Arabic and Moslem fanaticism, while the violence and extent of their intestinal discords tacitly yielded to a sympathetic unity of culture and ideas, Russia, that sturdy oriental craft on the old European trunk, remained quiet, closed to the beneficent current. And when Peter the Great imposed a western civilization on it, it entered into European life, imposing its own political and religious

autocracy in its turn. From that very time this new ethnic organism began its tenacious and violent expansion with the proclamation of its own religious and political principles, before which the future must stand in awe. With the audacity and force of youth this gigantic polypus has sent its robust tentacles in all directions. Already Slavic in the North, Asia tremblingly saw two sharp points threateningly penetrate to the South through the mountains of Afghanistan, and rapidly extend over the Transcaucasian plain. Now if the Slav bursts out into countries like these, in spite of great natural obstacles, what dikes shall Europe offer—Europe, which is protected by only artificial boundaries—when, ready for the decisive and fatal moment, he shall decide on action?

In the middle of continental Europe, in immediate contact with Russia, Germany and Austria stand in this work of general and individual protection. Sole representatives of Teutonism, they form the only ethnic nucleus, still vigorous in Europe, which is capable of resisting the one hundred and twenty million Slavs who are flowing toward the West from the Amur and the Lena. They have seen the peril and are seeking to prevent it. But one of the two, Austria, still coherent through forces that can be hardly otherwise explained than by the tradition of a glorious empire, feels its cohesion undermined by turbulent Slavic currents. Bismarck clearly saw this situation in 1878, and, pointing out to her the new way of the future, "Austria to the East," placed Austria as the advanced sentinel against the coming invasion. There can be no lasting accord between the Slav and the Teuton. They differ too much in their nature, intellectual, religious, political. Only the fearful prevision of the titanic struggle restrains and moderates their aggressive desires. They do not entrust themselves to the fortune of war, but none the less they are busy with extending each the influence of his race. More than a century ago the Great Frederick had pointed out the danger to Prussian independence: "If the Russians go to Constantinople," he

said, "in two years more they will reach Königsberg."

William II. saw and understood the great peril. He accepted the new canons of his diplomats. With the customary activity of his energetic mind he quickly faced the solemn problem, stamping upon it a vigorous personal imprint, as is his wont in all matters of state. He felt that his Germany, stronger than Austria in its ethnic and moral cohesion, could better oppose itself to the inroads of the Slavs. In continental Europe, out of all the Latin group which from time immemorial had been the natural barrier against every disturbing current, he found only France a still powerful nucleus. But a century of the history of the French nation, noble opponent of Slavic irruptions, glorious protagonist of the rights of Latin Europe in the face of Slavic semi-barbarism, is crowded out and disappears among the complications of the present hour.

England, however, offered him, with its long-standing policy of opposition to Russia, an aid in the stern undertaking. Such assistance might still be surely counted upon. But he soon found that in this quarter compromises with mutual advantages resulting, or perhaps declining energy in action, had removed the representative of the West from the disputed field.

William II. unites in his nature and character the severe qualities of his grandfather and the happy adaptability of his father. His make-up is a mingling of northern and southern traits. A youthful enthusiasm, even for things outside the range of politics, lends great fascination to the figure of the German sovereign. And this enthusiastic nature regained entire the energy of the race, while adjusting itself to pressure and unexpected changes and forces in the recent Greco-Turkish struggle.

For any one who superficially looked for motives of the policy of a monarch whose actions are sometimes subjected to the impulses of a youthful spirit, but still a spirit which determines these actions to assume a sane and mature order of ideas, there appeared no logical reason for the German policy. The cause of these motives was at-

tributed either to a natural scorn or a lively irritation at the violation of international rights on the part of Greece at the time of her armed intervention in behalf of Crete. No one saw the pettiness of the first reason nor the emptiness of the second. No, the hostile attitude of William II. toward the nation which is the second fatherland of his sister has far other causes than those surmised by unreflecting political diviners. We have no reason to suppose that any desire for the rigid protection of the integrity of Turkey could have been revived in him by the breath of moral sympathy or the hope of territorial and commercial advantages. The eternal eastern question has not lasted so long on account of Ottoman strength or western affection for the Turk. Its only support has been the jealousy of the great powers and their terror at the thought of the possible spoils. In the Teuton the aversion to Islamism is innate. Metternich has said it, and Frederick William II. and Manteuffel² and Bismarck have said it. And Germany can hope for no territorial expansion from the destruction of the Moslem Empire, because she holds no territory contiguous to that empire. Nor is the spirit of commercial development, and the desire for peace which is favored by that spirit, an adequate explanation for the eastern policy of William II. More than all these reasons, rather than all, is the anticipation of future ill to his state, should the *status quo*³ in the East be done away with.

Any solution of the Turkish problem, when we take into account the ethnic quantities, the power of impetus, the modern political currents, the tendencies of some of the Balkan states, will redound almost entirely to the advantage of Russia, whether Europe wills it or not. And the power of expansion of the Slavic race, emboldened by success, will be greater, and it will be mainly directed against the German race, from the proximity of the races, from the aversion of blood and policy, and from the lack of natural physical barriers. Therefore Germany is going to delay the terrible solution with all her powers. For this reason, when the

Cretan imbroglio involved Greek politics William II., fearing a general uprising which might become the occasion of a general European struggle, came forward to allay the excitement. And from that moment the long series of threats, counsels, opposition began which the German monarch has maintained throughout the whole Greco-Turkish conflict.

It may seem to superficial observers that William II., if we admit this explanation of his conduct, has had an inglorious recourse to the Prussian policy of a century and more ago. And his advice and aid and congratulations to the Musselman, triumphant over little, impoverished Greece, seems to recall vividly that past when Frederick William II. could receive from Diez, his ambassador at Constantinople, the following communication :

The Turkish ministers have no other will than what I inspire in them. . . . My object is to diffuse our influence into all the branches of the Turkish government and direct that government in Your Majesty's interest. If I may judge from the dispositions which now dominate here, every Turk has become a Prussian, and all the ministers speak of nothing but Prussia and its great monarch. Even Reis-Effendi is but pliable wax in my hands.

But what produced sympathy and interest in Turkey in those days was territorial greed. The policy of to-day is inspired by much higher motives.

When the conditions of the treaty of Kutchuk-Kainardji,⁴ already very favorable to Russia, were violated by Catharine II. by the occupation of the Crimea, the eastern Turco-Russian question began to be a Russo-European question. Germany first saw this fact clearly in 1878 when Bismarck broke with the Prussian diplomatic tradition. In his eyes each phase of this question became a feature of the Germano-Slavic contest. So William II.'s energy has a double object: first, the proclamation of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire and the strengthening of its structure; and, second, the neutralizing of dissolvent energies from whatsoever quarter they may come. To have made himself, more than others and more than in the past, the intimate counselor of the sultan is not, as some believe, the

effect of pure vanity and desire to put himself before the public. His influence on Turkish politics is as a watchful guard against unexpected crises and a strangling of pernicious measures. One would seek in vain for any other reason for this unwonted activity of his. Nor should we marvel at his agreement with Russia and his diplomatic courtesy toward her, for Russia in this present crisis has not been separated from the collective action of the West. The remembrance of 1878 and 1886 is too fresh for Russia to decide on the carrying out, even to a partial extent, of the ethnic ideal. The Muscovite Empire does not feel that the hour is ripe, and hence follows out the only line of policy possible, which is Ottoman integrity. By this policy (which was necessitated, and was not chosen freely by him) and by the European concert, William II. skilfully reinvigorated, without any apparently aggressive spirit, the rigidly conservative policy in its anti-Slavic design.

The emperor's tactics are preventive tactics. The treaty of 1878, despite the affirmations of some German publicists, was made in opposition to Russian plans. Yet Bismarck did not hesitate to affirm in a speech of February 6, 1888 :

During the Congress of Berlin I can truthfully say I understood my part to be almost as a fourth Russian plenipotentiary to it, that is, so far as I was able to do so without injuring the interests of our friends. During all its deliberations no Russian desire came to my knowledge which I did not thereupon recommend and also which I did not put into realization. Thanks to the confidence and the friendship which Lord Beaconsfield manifested toward me, at dead of night I went to his sick-bed, in the most difficult and critical moments of the congress, and by his pillow at times when the breaking up of the congress was imminent I obtained his consent to my plans. In short, my conduct at the congress was such that he said to me after it closed: "I have had the highest Russian order for a long time, and I have set it in brilliants; otherwise you would receive it."

In the present conflict, if, in spite of the Triple Alliance, the Germany of Bismarck is most conciliatory toward Russia, the latter knows very well that the young emperor is establishing a preponderate in-

fluence with the sultan, to counteract any and every violation of the treaty of Berlin. That new breath of life, that violent injection of oxygen into the body of the Sick Man, tends to preserve him from a dissolution by which Russian aggrandizement would profit most materially. Inspired by a most lofty patriotism, William II. is correcting a century of anti-patriotic policy, and Germany follows him in his eastern policy, faithful and admiring. Germany has this advantage over other lands, that it is inhabited by a thoughtful, logical people. Just as the nation emphatically condemns an internal policy which savors of autocracy—as we see by the vote of the Reichstag on the 18th of May last—so it unconditionally approves the eastern and foreign policy.

We have seen abundant proofs in speech, book, or pamphlet that national disapproval had been freely meted out to the dynastic or party policy which had been observed on the eastern question for the past century. But in the present tendency all Germany applauds its leader, and this general approval is shown by a most interesting fact: among the troops of foreign volunteers enrolled for the defense of Greece there was not one German. It would be a strange thing, without this proof of the patriotic policy of the emperor, that a nation which manifested so much enthusiasm for the Hellenic glories of the past should suddenly stop and deny to them now what all non-diplomatic Europe conceded to them, a friendly word in a struggle for the freedom of their children. Germany has applauded their adversary because under the almost violent protection of a barbarous people she sees the defense of the great Teutonic element against the perils of the future. Has Europe reason to applaud? For those who on the whole believe, as we do, that the European concert in favor of the *status quo* in the East is a good thing, applause is a duty. The work of William II., inspired by national patriotism, becomes the work of occidental patriotism. It is indirect resistance to the Slavonic flood by a necessary equilibrium. It is a new cru-

sade of the West against that East whence indeed came intellectual light into Europe, but also barbarism sometimes. And the attitude of the German monarch after the defeat of Greece lends also to our approval. As before he had tried all means to prevent war, and during the clash of arms had done everything to make it short, even in making it more violent, so now in maintaining the declaration already made he fights for Greek interests against the claims of the conqueror. To this result, to this wearisome work of peace, he gives his steadfast support.

But, in conclusion, will the present intervention of Europe, and particularly of Germany, an intervention which has been more energetic than the past interventions, have a lasting success hoped for in the maintenance of the Ottoman *status quo*? The origin of the struggle, we remember, was in forbidding the annexation of Crete to the mother country. The present arrangements will give autonomy to the island, instead of annexation. But a century of obstinate struggles which have had annexation for their object does not offer much comfort for the future peace of the island, nor will Greece's complete defeat, willed by Europe, be a safe punishment and a guaranty of long tranquillity. Still the political revolutions and the national reconstructions in these oriental conflicts do not really depend on the will and actions of the parties that are directly interested. When the treaty of July 21, 1774, put Moldavia and Wallachia under Russian protection, the will of the Balkan states disappeared, annihilated. Whatever may be the movements and the revolutions of the future, the Balkan Peninsula will never on its own account produce a single change in the liberties and autonomies already conceded. In the present crisis I hope I may prove a false prophet, but I greatly fear that the victory of Turkey favored by Europe will complicate and hasten the much-feared solution of the eastern question, even more than the triumph of Greece or the annexation of Crete would have done.

(End of Required Reading for December.)

A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE SHADOW FALLS ON HEART'S DELIGHT.

PETE set out at a run toward the creek and turned in the direction where he knew the battle had been hottest. He met many stragglers and wounded, to all of whom he put the same question, "Has yo' seed meh young mahsteh?" Some returned not so much as a shake of the head to such an indefinite question; others gave a short no and hurried on. His young master! Too many young masters lay dead on that bloody field for any one to know which was his. Yet he persevered. Hatless, the tears running unheeded down his cheeks, ever running and ever hurling that inquiry at all he met, he was a pitifully grotesque figure, that looked more demented than sane. Fortunately he did not know how fruitless such questioning probably would be, for, as it happened, presently he found help. One gentleman answered by asking:

"Are you Captain Seddon's servant?"

"Yas, sah."

"And you say your master's son, young Ned Seddon, has been killed?"

"Yas, sah—oh, my Gord! my Gord!"

His tears and choking sobs would have answered had his lips been mute.

"Well, he must have fallen in the assault, for I saw him not long before. Look on the other side the creek, close to the road which leads up the hill."

He had hardly concluded when Pete set out upon his run again. The sun had hidden his face from the desolation which greeted him and lowering clouds threatened ominously. Away in their black depths the thunder rolled and crackled and the lightning licked out spitefully in forked gleams. The pasture looked to be in deep twilight; the darkness made the bodies Pete soon began to stumble upon more ghastly still. His teeth chattered; his breath came in gasps; his limbs trembled

like a palsied man's—only the truest love could hold him to such a task. Soon it grew worse, for the scene of battle had not shifted too far for many a bullet to come whistling his way. Every one that struck the branches above his head with a distinct thud terrorized him the more. Once he fell to his knees and began to crawl, but his progress was too slow to satisfy him. He jumped to his feet and began to run again.

The bodies were thicker now; some, wounded, were groaning with pain. It was a grisly scene. All the tales he had heard around the cabin fire assailed his inbred superstition. Ghosts and devils and all hideous creatures took shape and menaced him. He was a lost spirit wandering through a Purgatorio. Those horrible piles of dead! Blue coats and gray heaped one on another—such a leveler is death! Every moment some frightful circumstance added to the grisliness. Now he had stepped into a pool of blood, which splashed him from head to foot. Ugh! The old darkies said the stain of human blood could never be washed away. Soon after a disheveled figure raised on its elbow and asked in God's name for a drink of water. Mephistopheles himself could not have caused Pete greater terror. Deaf to all entreaty, he gave a whoop of horror and fled, speeding in headlong flight over dead bodies or wounded with ruthless feet, careless of prayer or imprecation. Finally he caught his foot and fell. He could not rise at once; he only looked wildly about him, his affrighted eyes nearly bursting from their sockets.

Then he drew one deep breath; could it be possible? There lay Ned close beside him, with eyes half closed, half surprised. Pete gave a shout of joy and sprang to his side, caressing and weeping over him as his mother would have done. Laughing and

crying at once, he murmured in broken sentences :

"He ain' daid ! Mahs Gawg didn' know. He ain' daid ! Bress de Lahd ! Jes' w'en I gin up hope er fin'in 'im, dar he war, er-smilin' at Pete ez sweet ez er li'l' baby. Ef I could pray lack pappy I'd pray. Bress Gord ! Bress Gord !"

Ned tried to smile, but the wan lips only quivered. Presently he whispered wearily :

"I thought you'd come, Pete. Take me back quick."

With a tenderness more than tender the faithful servant lifted him in his arms, throwing the chief burden on his shoulders. To go back the way he had come was not to be thought of, so he turned toward the road which mounted the hill and skirted the pasture. But soon, in spite of his powerful strength, he staggered under his load and was forced to lay the boy, again unconscious, upon the grass.

Just then he saw one of the wagons, busy removing the dead from the field, coming down the road, and hastened toward it. When he came up it had halted and the driver was ineffectually urging the horses with oath and lash to proceed. The wheels had literally mired in the dust produced by the rolling of countless vehicles and the tramp of thousands of feet. Finally the driver, exhausted with swearing and beating, called, "'Tain't no use, boys. You'll have to unload."

Thereupon the men in charge began to toss out their comrades' bodies as carelessly as butchers unloading swine. A rude jest on each poor fellow that increased the pile added to the uncanny hideousness of the scene. Pete was far more sensitive than those of whiter skin ; horrified at their levity he ran back, determined that Ned should not be entrusted to such ungentle hands. As though in response to his dilemma he saw a riderless horse grazing a short distance away, and soon, with the assistance of a soldier opportunely returning to camp, he had lifted his young master upon it. The distance to the tent was then easily and quickly cleared. The fighting was a mile

beyond the hill by this time and no obstacle hindered.

The surgeon of Captain Seddon's company was in attendance at the hospital and took Ned at once into his charge. Only a superficial examination was made, more being unnecessary. The boy's face read his doom. He lay motionless, his breath so faint that unless one were close beside him he seemed not to breathe at all. Pete, hardly more alive, seemingly, knelt beside him. Utterly oblivious to the disorder that prevailed, he did not once withdraw his eyes from the white face, but his cheek was constantly wet with the tears that rolled down unheeded.

An hour had passed thus when Captain Seddon and Mr. Mayhew entered the tent and stood beside the cot. As if his father's presence had power to recall him to life, Ned opened his eyes and smiled faintly into the face that strove to return the smile in vain, and gently pressed the hand holding his own.

"Father," he whispered. The father put his ear close to the pale lips. "Tell mother I thought I'd make—her proud of me—to-day,—but luck deserted—me—at last. Kiss her—and little Nell—for me." A pause and then he said : "Give Max my—love. Always be good—to Pete."

Pete could restrain his grief no longer. Seizing the hand near him he covered it with kisses, his sobs filling the tent. Captain Seddon knelt and drew his boy's head to his bosom, but his anguish forbade his uttering the words he wished to say.

"Dear, dear father," was the tender whisper, "I wish I—could stay"—and his own lashes were wet. "Pray, Mr. Mayhew."

After the prayer he lay so still and such an exquisite content glorified his face that they thought him dead. Outside there was a shouting ; the victorious Confederates were returning to camp. Ned opened his eyes again.

"Our soldiers are happy over their victory," explained the surgeon.

For a moment the boy's heart beat with its wonted vigor. He waved his hand feebly,

with the boyish gesture all who knew him loved so well, and almost gaily cried :

"Hurrah for the brave Confederate boys!"

A convulsive shiver—a gasp—and the sheen of the Heavenly City fell athwart his face. Ned's first battle had been his last.

That night the three mourners bore the body home to the mother. She hardly made a moan, she did not shed a tear; but all the day till the final hour she sat beside him, calling him by the fond names she had always lavished on him, her idol, her first-born, and smoothing his light curls with the caressing touches he had loved. When the time came for shutting him out from mortal sight she covered the pallid forehead with feverish kisses, whispering with heart-broken resignation, "Good-by, my childie. It will not be long."

They laid him to sleep beneath a pendant-twigged willow in the graveyard beside the orchard, where in summer the long grasses wave gently above him and in winter the winds sing his requiem. The cause he died for long ago lost its significance to the people of his beloved Southland, but he sleeps as calmly as though it had been triumphant—as though his grave had been crowned with laurel instead of the wreath of rue.

In such troubled times the dead must almost bury themselves. Only a few neighbors, besides the pastor and servants, were there to do him honor. Nell clung to her father and sobbed most piteously, while he repressed his grief only by the most determined effort. His wife was calm and her eyes dry, though her sighs would have softened a stone, till Pete threw himself on the new grave and broke his heart with weeping. Then, angelic as ever in her thoughtfulness of others, she bent over him to whisper some word—of comfort, or of gratitude, perhaps, for enabling her boy to send even a brief, brief message home—bent over him, and fell fainting at her husband's feet.

CHAPTER XIV.

AN EMIGRATION.

MRS. CHESTER and her son, Mr. Adol-

phus Chester, ex-captain of the Sixth — Volunteers, were in the sitting-room at The Oaks in deep conversation. It was several weeks after his retirement from the Confederate service, and only two days since the closing scene of the last chapter. His hat and riding-gloves were on the floor beside his chair, indicating that he had just come in from a ride and was in more haste than he usually allowed himself to be. Possibly his hurried retreat had given him a lesson in the art of despatch.

"So the doctor advises you to leave this state at once?" Mrs. Chester was saying.

"Well, no; not exactly that, but he says I endanger my life every time I go into a battle. The fat around my heart is apt to melt and immediate death will result if it does. I wish I could fight those dastardly Yankees without losing my temper and getting hot all over, but I just can't. And if we stay here I must go back into the army; I couldn't resist the temptation, even if I knew I should be killed in the first fight. Of course I wouldn't care for that—I should think any southerner (except some of those cowardly fellows in my company) would be glad to die that way; but I am thinking of you and Edith. I owe my widowed mother and orphaned sister my first duty. I don't care what any one says or thinks; I am not going to expose myself to certain death and leave you and Edith to battle with the world alone."

It was the longest and most filial speech Adolphus had ever made. It caused his mother to overflow with gratitude and admiration.

"Oh, Adolphus," she said, almost crying, "you are the best son that ever lived, I know. I'm the proudest woman in America. Just to think how brave you are, and yet just as thoughtful of me and your sister as if you were no braver than other people! You are exactly like your poor, dear father. I always was a coward about a gun, but he never was afraid of anything. I do hate, though, to have you give up all your prospects for us."

"I'm glad to make the sacrifice." (He never spoke a truer word.) "I don't want

to shirk any responsibility of an only son. You are willing, then, to go to Nebraska till the war is over?"

"Yes, indeed, I want to go as soon as possible. I'm afraid you will be running off to join General McClintock if we stay here two weeks longer. Only one thing—two—worry me."

"What are they?"

"I don't know what the Confederacy will do without your help. No matter how modest you are, you can't fool me. I am positive that you resigned your command because you were disgusted that every man was not as great a hero as yourself."

"I was the very last man on the field, and I had never ordered a retreat—they ran without any orders."

"Well, I should hate dreadfully for the South to fail because I am such a coward that I want to get away from the war. If only your poor, dear father were alive! And the other thing is, if the Confederacy should succeed without you, you wouldn't have any share in the offices and all that. There is no telling what you might get to be if we gained our independence. After President Davis—"

"Let's not talk about that any more. I have made up my mind to the sacrifice and I'll stick to what I have said."

"Yes, you are always so firm. Oh, Adolphus, there is another thing—what shall we do with the house and farm?"

"Leave them here, of course."

"You know what I mean; who will take care of everything? The more I think of it the more I see plainly we ought not to go. Why, the house might be burned down. People are getting mean enough to do anything."

"The house is in no danger, nor anything else. Jim has been running the place for fifteen years and could continue to do so. But I am glad you would rather not go. I will set out for camp to-morrow. Probably another battle will be fought soon and I can test the truth of the doctor's opinion. If I should die, mother, remember I offered to sacrifice my desire to die for my country and live for you and —

"You shall not join the army again! I don't care what becomes of the house. You would die—I know you would. I will start for Nebraska next week."

"No, the other decision suits me exactly. The house might be burned and the crops be unharvested."

"What are a thousand houses to me in comparison with your life? I tell you I am going, and you must go with me."

"Well, if you will have it so, and as I have already given you my promise. But I don't believe Edith will go. She will be afraid that Cousin Evelyn will need her, or that one of the darkies will get sick and lack some attention."

"Oh, yes, she will go when she learns what you are giving up for our safety. Let me see; we will close the blinds to the house, store the furniture in a few rooms, and turn the kitchen over to Jim and Nancy. Mr. Dupey will oversee things somewhat for us, I suppose, and if there is business to be transacted wouldn't Mr. Allyn—?"

"I will have nothing to do with him! Although he is not in the Federal army he is doing as much for that side as any blasted Yankee among them. I will sacrifice my feelings enough to emigrate to a free state, but pray do not press me any farther. There are others just as capable as Allyn of attending to your affairs."

"Oh, of course. When do you wish me to be ready to start?"

"You talk as though you were going with me. The question is, when will you be ready? I can arrange my plans to suit yours, but the sooner we go the better."

"My arrangements can be completed in a week."

"Very well; this day week then we leave."

Thus with slight difficulty Adolphus had not only persuaded his mother to accompany him to Nebraska under show of a sublime sacrifice, but had made her believe him a hero spoiling for conquest. Moreover, he had almost—not quite—reached this conclusion himself, despite the unmerciful twitting he everywhere received. Even

in passing a crowd of darkies one day he distinctly caught the whisper, "Mahs 'Dolphus, he run, he did." Yet, in face of his recognized cowardice, he was each moment nearer accepting his mother's fond sentiments of his courage. Such was the condition when Edith entered the room.

Mrs. Chester looked at Adolphus, and Adolphus looked at Mrs. Chester, each wishing that the other would declare their plan. Ordinarily Edith would have noticed their embarrassment and laughed at it, but she had just returned from Heart's Delight with a heart too sad for trifles.

"How are all at Evelyn's?" Mrs. Chester asked.

"Not much changed from yesterday; only a little sadder if possible, as Cousin John has returned to his command. Poor little Nell cries half the time and Cousin Evelyn's heart is broken. You may expect me to be there most of the time for a while, mamma. Cousin John left them in my care and I must do all I can to lighten their grief."

Mrs. Chester thought this an opportunity to declare their purpose and did so in as few words as possible. To their vexation, hardly their surprise, the girl positively refused to go.

"Run before the Yankees? I will not," she said.

Adolphus winced. In families where there has been a hanging it is not safe to talk about ropes; so did the word "run" gall him cruelly.

"But, Edith, you do not understand," her mother continued. "Adolphus is wild to go back to the army, but the doctor says he will die if he does; and he loves us so much that he is willing to sacrifice all his brilliant prospects for our safety. But we are not safe here and must go to a free state outside the war district."

"I don't entirely understand, mamma. What are Adolphus' brilliant prospects that he is sacrificing for us? I never heard of them before. He threw up his captaincy after the first skirmish. As to our safety, I feel perfectly secure, and he would too if he were where he belongs, in the Confederate army fighting for his country."

"But you forget about your brother's delicate condition—his fatty heart."

"So it is for his own safety, then, not ours, that he wishes to run away?"

"Edith, I wish you would choose your words with more care," interposed Adolphus. "Your talk of running away hurts my feelings very much." Then turning to his mother: "I told you she would not go. She does not care that much for our pleasure and comfort."

Edith answered him with a look of scorn, but her tone to her mother lacked nothing in affection.

"Please do not insist upon my going, mamma. It is perfectly right that you should if you feel unable to endure any more of the war. I know Ned's death has shaken you terribly."

Her voice choked and she paused. After a moment she resumed:

"But that very event forbids my leaving Cousin Evelyn. Think of her, mamma!—her boy dead, her husband away. What would she do with us gone too? Let us do this: you go to Nebraska with Adolphus and I will stay with her. You do not need me and she does."

Edith's mother had learned long ago that her daughter's no was final, so at last she yielded and all was arranged to Adolphus' satisfaction, which was the greater, perhaps, because Edith was not going. She had too strict a sense of honor and duty and a most uncomfortable way of divining one's motives.

Edith slept little that night. Her animosity toward the North, heightened by Ned's death, had flamed into passion. And yet, singular as it may appear, she felt more kindly toward Max than she had since his tragic determination to cast in his fortune with her enemies. If Adolphus had been gifted with as indomitable courage as her own she might have ended by hating Max—for a time at least—most heartily, as he feared she would; but she had been given such a clear idea of her brother's conduct that she felt her own honor impeached in his cowardice. As a result she was humbled, humiliated, enough to be more

lenient to those holding opinions conflicting with hers. If she had been formed in a narrower mold the consequence might have been reversed; but her eyes were too clear not to be generous, and Adolphus' unlucky skirmish was the ill wind which blew to the hopeless lover an admiration, mingled with resentment though it was, which no power could have compelled her to admit.

She did not forgive him—it takes long years to efface such resentment. Besides, she felt that one indulgent thought of him, with Ned's grave not three days old, was disloyal to everything faithful and true. And yet—ah, and yet! for she was a woman—she wept bitter tears to think what glorious happiness had been hers if the war had not stolen it away. Or, if Max had been loyal to the South, even if he filled a grave beside the boy at Heart's Delight, how she could exult in his love!

Every word of their brief courtship lived again in her memory. Again she walked down the lane, again that eager face, brimful of longing, confronted her, and again she found in his arms dear refuge from all perplexities. One moment she regretted she had ever known such a scene; the next she confessed that that one evening was worth all her life besides. Thus she tossed with conflicting regret, the burden of her woe ever being Max, whom she could not hate if she would and whom she would not hate if she could.

If he could only have known! In the first glow of his enlistment he had fancied himself almost happy, but consciousness of doing one's duty grows to be lean sustenance. Philosophers and idealists are theorizing about a race of perfectionists, unwrinkled by sin, when they claim for it supreme happiness. Not that he regretted his course; he was moved by principle, not emotion. It was the only course open to one of his integrity. Yet very often he had to bolster himself with a recital of all the arguments on his side to be convinced he had not played the fool. In many weak moments his heart-sick soul accused him of selling his birthright for a mess of pottage; or, he felt that he was starving,

with food in sight which he dared not eat.

Love, as everything else, was very real to him. It was not a namby-pamby sentimentalism, frail as a sensitive plant, but a genuine affection, promising to last forever. At each letter from Richard Allyn such a tide of homesickness for Edith and his brother and all the home folk and the dear old place rolled over him that he cared not whether he lived or died. Indeed it was partly sheer recklessness which carried him to the fore-front of every battle, there to win promotion and honors which gave him little joy—for he could not help feeling that the more he signalized his devotion to the Union the more estranged he was from every object he held dear. Nor were the Federal victories an unmixed triumph. The bond between him and his brother had always been too perfect for him to fail to sympathize with what he knew must be to the other a sore grief. Poor Max! Life's cares are heavy burdens when they fall on shoulders grown strong in bearing them. How nearly insupportable when they fall on the inexperienced!

The preparation at The Oaks for departure prospered so that all was in readiness by the day named. The day preceding, Mrs. Chester was driven into Jefferson to pay several farewell calls, among them one to Mrs. Richard Allyn. Adolphus strongly remonstrated against the visit, but his mother had a decided admiration for the young lawyer's pretty wife and felt that as long as he was not actually enrolled in the Federal army she could afford to keep the wife on her visiting list.

There, to her astonishment, she found Mrs. Wire, occupying the most comfortable chair and expatiating on Siley and little Sile and Kansas with her peculiar volubility.

"I think you have met Mrs. Wire, Mrs. Chester," the hostess said.

"La! yes, at Mis' Seddon's. How dy'e, Mis' Chester? How air ye?"

"Thank you, quite well."

The reply was accompanied by the air of a duchess and a sniffing curl of my lady's lip. It was not that she resented Mrs.

Wire's presence as the wife of the militia captain. Such a consideration would have cut short her acquaintance with a social equal like Mrs. Allyn, but she too utterly and thoroughly despised persons as low-born as the Wires to care about their political preferences.

"Sile, where's your manners? Speak to Mis' Chester like er little gentleman," his mother insisted.

But Sile was mute and Mrs. Chester vouchsafed him hardly so much as a glance.

"And so you are going away," said Mrs. Allyn after they were seated.

"Yes, we start to-morrow."

"Where to, Mis' Chester?" The captain's wife was not at all abashed by a lack of civility.

The look she received would have frozen less delicate material; the tone was an icicle.

"To Nebraska."

"Dear Lord! air you though? I've got er fourth cousin some'er' in Newbrasky. His name——"

Mrs. Chester to Mrs. Allyn:

"My son is really compelled to leave. Our physician says——"

"His name is George Wash'n'ton Ketchum—my fam'ly name before I married Siley. Ef you——"

"That he must not go into the service again. Any excitement or overheating is liable——"

"Ef you run acrosst him while you air gadd'n' about, jest——"

"To prove fatal. But still he would not think of going except for my safety and Edith's. I am so anxious about him."

Mrs. Wire brought her own sentence to an abrupt close to ejaculate,

"That big, fat feller?"

Another icy glare and Mrs. Chester continued:

"It nearly breaks Adolphus' heart to leave the army. He is so brave that he would fight a whole regiment all by himself rather than retreat."

"He! he! he!" giggled Mrs. Wire.

"I never saw any one as fearless except his poor, dear father. But, as I said, our physician's orders are imperative."

The subject was dangerous and Mrs. Allyn hastened to change it.

"Your son is certainly wise to avoid any further risk. I understand you will leave Miss Edith with Mrs. Seddon."

"Yes, she declared positively she would not leave her cousin."

"I guess Edith's 'fraid Max might come home an' she'd miss see'n him 'way off in Newbrasky."

Both ladies sat speechless at such impertinence.

"You needn't git mad erbout it—I didn't mean noth'n'. I don't blame no girl fur lov'n' Max Seddon. He's ez fur ahead uv his brother ez them fine hogs the colonel has is uv er hazel-splitter."

Before she had nearly finished Mrs. Chester had begun to say:

"I know I have the best children in the world, Mrs. Allyn. There is Adolphus sacrificing all his brilliant prospects for Edith and me. And she—why she has the tenderest heart! Every time she comes from Evelyn's she has a good cry. But it's no wonder she feels sorry for Evelyn."

"Poor, dear lady," said Mrs. Allyn. "I went out there a few days ago, and it nearly broke my heart to see how changed the place is. When we were first invited there, more than a year ago, I thought it was nearer paradise than any home I had ever seen. Now the desolation chills me. And Mrs. Seddon's white, wan face with the sorrowful eyes has haunted me ever since."

Mrs. Wire had been ignored as long as she could endure it.

"I say all her trouble's the jedgment o' God fur her pride. When I heard her son had fell I wa'n't s'prised—dear Lord, no! I never heard tell o' nobody ez stuck-up an' stiff-necked ez Mis' Seddon what didn't come to grief."

Mrs. Chester only looked; she was too frenzied for words. Mrs. Allyn said in her most appealing tone,

"You misunderstand Mrs. Seddon's character."

"No, I don't neither. Me'n' Siley's jest ez good ez anybody, an' all the time we lived on that place she never come in our

house but onct, an' that was when this precious, blessed child had the pneumony. An' that high an' mighty air she allus had—it made me wanten up an' sass her ev'ry time I see her. 'Oh, Kansas!' says I when I heard how cut up she was over that boy be'n' dead—'oh, Kansas! it'll be the means o' grace to her to be took down some.' "

"Madam!" cried Mrs. Chester, who had found her tongue, "pray do not mention that hated name in my presence again! I should wish to be out of the Union if for no other reason than because that state belongs to it."

"Kansas people is jest ez good ez you, ma'm. You ain't no better'n Mis' Seddon, an' I'm glad uv er chance to tell you so. You think 'cause you allus wear yore silks, folks in calicer ain't good 'nough t' wipe yore feet on. Other people's go'n' t' have some fine clo'es too—dear Lord! What'll you think then? An' I'll tell you why yore 'Dolphus left the army; it's 'cause he's er coward. Oh, Kansas! wouldn't I hate fur ev'rybody t' be laugh'n' at Siley like they's laugh'n' at him! Siley he told me, an' Siley knows. Ask yore brave soldier ef he's still expect'n' uv them troops whut he wus wait'n' fur at——"

Mrs. Chester never could recall how she got out of the room and the house. She had a confused memory of earnest apology from Mrs. Allyn and then a sense of relief that she could breathe air not polluted by that vulgar woman's presence. She was mortified to death to think how nearly she had come to quarreling with the creature. What would the Virginia relatives say if they had witnessed such a scene? Everlasting disgrace would be her doom, she did not doubt. She cared not a straw for Mrs. Wire's criminations; she laughed at them afterward. But she had no words that would express her indignation at the woman's familiarity.

"Just to think!" she said, "that brazen creature actually was trying to tell me of some low-born relative of hers, whom I really believe she intended to ask me to look up! She would not have dared sug-

gest such a thing six months ago. I don't know what will become of us all if this horrible war continues."

Mrs. Allyn laughed and cried at once when she described the encounter to her husband, but it elicited only peals of laughter from him.

"Don't laugh, Richard," she said. "I was never so ashamed in my life. The captain's wife shall never come into my house again. Stand by him officially all you wish, but don't ask me to do the honors to such a coarse, ill-bred woman."

Of course Mrs. Wire also gave her husband an animated description, winning a bearish caress for her audacity.

"Don't you fear we won't get even with all them high-toned 'ristocrats," was his approving answer. "The time's comin' fast when I'll make 'em pay for ev'ry sneer. Folks don't turn up their noses at Silas Wire or his without gettin' back more'n they give. The longer they put it off the more the interest grows. Just wait till I get to be commander of the post!"

CHAPTER XV.

THE SHADOW DEEPENS.

DEAR COUSIN JOHN:

If you can possibly get a furlough I wish you would come home. I am greatly troubled over Cousin Evelyn's condition. As you know, her health has been failing ever since Ned's death, but it has grown much worse during the last few weeks—at least the change is more evident. The doctor comes every day, but leaves little medicine and gives me no satisfaction. I should have written you sooner, but I feared you could not get leave of absence and the letter would only make you too anxious. Besides, every day I have hoped the next would bring a change for the better. Now, however, I dare not postpone writing any longer. I am not attempting to conceal my great uneasiness, and earnestly hope you may be able to come at once.

The rest of us are well. The darkies are as obedient as though under your eye. Job is faithful and capable beyond words. Mr. and Mrs. Allyn have been most kind to us. Their hearts are sound if their heads are not.

I write without Cousin Evelyn's knowledge, though I shall tell her after I have posted the letter. In the hope that you can answer in person.

Lovingly,

Edith.

Heart's Delight, March 15, 1862.

This brief letter affords a glimpse into the event of chief concern to us during the dreary winter of '61-2. Edith's fears were only too well founded. The gentle mistress of Heart's Delight was slipping away, inch by inch, from the cares and heartaches of the great world. Ah, she had measured her endurance well when she declared to Ned that she would never be able to survive the grief of his death. Yet if her husband had been with her constantly to support her fainting spirit with his strong personality she might have fought off the terrible heart-sickness that was so ruthlessly sapping her life. In vain Edith strove to take the master's place and win health to the tired body. Daily the sad face grew more and more wan, the white hands thinner, the pale lips more bloodless, the sweet smile, that had played round her lips so long that it had left its shadow there, more pathetic. Oh, it was pitiful!

But she was as brave as she had been at Ned's coffin; never a murmur or complaint escaped her. Each morning to Edith's anxious inquiry, to the servants' fond questions, and to little Nell's plaintive query there was the same placid response designed to reassure their foreboding. Even after she was too weak to sit up more than a few hours a day she would smile with a pathos more moving than tears and return an answer half apology for the pain she inflicted in not showing the old-time vigor. She had her couch drawn to the window from which she could see the broken shaft she had had erected over her boy's grave, and there for hours, with wide-open, far-away eyes, her hands clasped upon her breast, she would lie as quietly as though death had already claimed her.

Such mournful apathy could not fail to appeal even to Nell. "Motherie," she asked one day, using a tender diminutive she had caught from her brother, "why don't you laugh and play with me any more?"

"Why, you have Cousin Edith to play with you now, my pet. Mother is getting to be an old woman and can't exert herself as she used to do."

"Are you very sick, mother? I heard Hannah tell Mollie she was mighty uneasy about you."

"Hannah must not say such foolish things. Come, cuddle down here beside me, and we'll play you are my baby again. That is the only kind of playing mother is good for now."

"And will you let us turn the lounge around so you can't look at the graveyard? It makes me feel so bad to see you lie this way all the time."

"Mother has been selfish; she didn't know you cared. She lies here and thinks of Ned until she almost imagines she can see him and hear him laugh."

They moved the couch in sight of another window, the child doing most of the work. When they had lain down, and the mother had kissed her fondly and was holding her close, she lay strangely quiet.

"What are you thinking about, Nellie? I like to hear my cricket chirp."

Nell looked wistfully into her mother's face. "Mother, did you love Ned better than me?"

"Why, no! my darling. What could have put that into your head?"

"Hannah said she believed you were dying for love of Ned. Oh, mother! dear, dear mother! please don't! You've got your little Nell left."

Then she burst into a storm of weeping which showed how deeply the words had cut into her little heart. The mother wept too, assuring her again and again of her love.

For a few days following the dear lady made heroic effort to grow better, and did appear brighter, as though a pale reflection of the old sunny temper. But it could not last; the bullet which ended Ned's life pierced his mother's heart also. Indeed the very effort weakened her the more. Thereafter she quickly became too frail to attend to the simple duties she had never wholly relinquished, and the entire oversight of the servants was committed to Edith, on whose strong young arms the mistress leaned as confidently as did little Nell. Then it was that Edith penned the letter to Captain Seddon, reproaching her-

self bitterly that she had not had the courage to write it before, and wretched with anxiety lest he might not come in time.

It was well that she waited no longer. The grim tidings reached him just on the eve of departure with the troops for the far South; a further delay of two days and he would have been out of reach of letters, however urgent; for all available forces were now being ordered to Mississippi to form a junction under Beauregard, in preparation for the struggle with that Jason who was to win a second golden fleece.

Unflinching obedience to this order was unsung heroism, but heroism nevertheless. The troops whose organization has been chronicled in these pages were enlisted primarily for the protection of their own Penates. In the less than twelvemonth since their enrollment they had, unaided by the Confederacy, in connection with the other southern forces of the state, equipped an army, held a larger number of the enemy at bay and driven it finally from the state, fought countless skirmishes, won three out of four battles, captured stores, arms, and artillery, and gained a name for valor unsurpassed by any soldiers of the lost cause. Yet at command, with many a backward

glance, with tearful eyes and anxious hearts, they turned their backs upon their unprotected homes, and, shouldering knapsack and gun, marched away in defense of the principle they believed right. Many did not see their homes again for years, many never returned. They spilled their blood on every southern battle-field, or the light of life went out most pitifully in northern prisons.

Fortunately, as has been said, Captain Seddon received Edith's letter before departure. Picture his distress if you can. He knew from his wife's letters that she was not well, but he had not dreamed of such a condition as this. That the bereavement would affect her health and forever destroy her gladness of heart he had expected from the first, but to steal her very life—it was not possible. If he had only known before! And yet Edith was right—war knows no holidays.

On second thought he was persuaded it was not so bad as the girl supposed. She was inexperienced and easily alarmed. Surely, surely his wife could not be dying. . . . But his boy had died! . . . Thus he wavered between hope and despair during what seemed interminable hours. Next morning he entered on his leave of absence.

(To be continued.)

NEWS-GETTING AT THE CAPITAL.

BY DAVID S. BARRY.

OF late years a barrier so high and so strong has been set up between the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Departments of the government and the newspaper correspondents that only by the most vigorous, persistent, and united assaults is it broken down and the public given an inkling of what its servants are doing in regard to matters in which they are vitally interested. Members of Congress, of course, have their own particular fortunes to consider, and, finding it necessary to use the newspapers for the purpose of reaching the ears of their constituents and the voters generally, frequently give reliable informa-

tion of a confidential nature and in advance of general publicity to correspondents with whom they desire to be on friendly terms. Members of the cabinet, likewise, occasionally "leak" on some live topic of news. When they do so, however, it is generally for the purpose of grinding an ax of their own and not because they desire to do a favor to the newspaper correspondent and through him to the dear public. Instances of public men in Washington telling both sides of a story when talking voluntarily, or even under compulsion, to newspaper correspondents are delightfully rare.

This policy of secrecy has become rap-

idly popular during the past ten years, until under the Cleveland administration it became so firmly fixed that information on public questions, especially with regard to the business of the State Department, was obtained much after the fashion in which highwaymen rob a stage-coach. These latter-day knights of the road are not burglars or street thieves, but by their own system of suasion they compel their victims to hold up their hands and disgorge the contents of their pockets. In Crane's popular play "The Senator," the actors weave their plots in the drawing-room of the secretary of state. Legislators, public officials, cabinet ministers, newspaper correspondents, cab drivers, telegraph messenger boys, women of the town, detectives, and heavy villains use the secretary's parlors as a rendezvous and go in and out at pleasure, at all hours of the day and night, and the newspaper reporter is always shown going about with an open note-book in his hand, jotting down haphazard memoranda of every move of the thrilling drama. In "real life," however, the drawing-room of the secretary of state has its latch-string very firmly fastened on the inside, and the newspaper correspondent who is invited to enter may get a glass of punch, but as for state secrets, he must get them on the outside if at all.

The State and Treasury Departments are especially strict in the observance of the policy of secrecy. It has often been said that the news of treasury operations comes first from Wall Street, and this is true to a large extent. The operators in "the street" are quite apt to be informed of financial matters before the red-tape system of the treasury will allow them to be made known to the newspaper correspondents at Washington, and if they succeed in obtaining and publishing the information prematurely the value of it is always discounted by the solemn "official denial" which is persisted in until concealment of the truth is no longer possible. During the great financial distress in the spring of 1893, which resulted in the passage of the Silver Repeal Bill and the repeated sales of bonds, the intention of the secretary of the treasury to

redeem treasury notes in silver was as well known in Washington as that hard times existed. The fact that all preparations had been made for paying silver over the cash-room counter had been widely published and generally accepted as true, when suddenly the administration repudiated the treasury plan and the president in a public interview denied that redemption in silver coin had been contemplated by the administration. The secretary of the treasury endorsed the denial and the newspaper correspondents were of course unable to prove to the public that their early reports had been correct.

The manner in which the information with regard to the late Secretary Gresham's patriotic despatch to the Spanish government, demanding a prompt apology for the insult offered to the American flag by the firing upon the *Alanca*, was given to the public affords a good illustration of the method and the effects of State Department secrecy. For two or three days the newspaper correspondents had been watching for news of the action of the administration. Mr. Gresham was then ill in bed at his hotel and Mr. Uhl was acting secretary of state. To the numerous inquiries for information he replied that nothing had been done. At the close of business hours on March 14, 1895, the representatives of the two news associations made their last call and still the acting secretary replied "nothing." About four o'clock on that day, however, after the United Press and Associated Press reporters had left the building, a few special correspondents happened to drop in on Mr. Uhl, and to them he admitted that a despatch had been sent to the Spanish minister of foreign affairs. Mr. Uhl would not give the contents of the despatch and would only say that it contained everything that the department thought it proper to say. The most persistent questioning failed to extract any further information. The correspondents were thus compelled to jump at conclusions and use their own judgment in guessing at the contents of the despatch. The lucky ones boldly announced that it was a vigorous demand for an apology, while

others said it was merely a request for detailed information and indicated that the department did not intend pointedly to resent the insult. The press associations published nothing at all, as they were not even informed that a cablegram had been sent.

The result was that two or three newspapers had correct information of the secretary's action, many others had incorrect information, while by far the larger number had none at all, and several days elapsed before the public was satisfied that the newspapers which said that a demand for an apology had been made had hit the nail on the head. That despatch to the Spanish ministry, moreover, is the one for which the State Department under the Cleveland administration obtained universal and popular approval. Its prompt and wide publication was earnestly desired, and yet the public received it piecemeal, simply because of the unfortunate and unnecessary policy of secrecy that it is to be hoped will not be perpetuated in the administration of the State Department.

President Cleveland seldom if ever talked to a newspaper correspondent. When he had something to communicate to the public he wrote it out and gave it to his private secretary to hand to the representative of the press associations. Mr. Cleveland early developed a fondness for making announcements in this formal way and it is a fact perhaps worth noting that he almost invariably selected Sunday evening for having his messages promulgated, evidently believing that on Monday morning the newspapers had ample space to devote to his utterances.

This method was also a favorite one with the late James G. Blaine. No public man in America better understood the ways and means of reaching the public ear through the newspaper press than Blaine. He cultivated the acquaintance of the representatives of powerful and widely circulated journals and often gave them "scoops," but when he did so it was generally for the purpose of making a point for himself, and the newspaper correspondent who did not at all

times hurrah for Blaine found himself suddenly cut off from the list of that great man's favorite friends. When Blaine wanted the largest audience he wrote out what he had to say, sent for the representatives of the press association, and handed them his copy without a word, just as President Cleveland did, and always, when the nature of the information would permit, on Sunday nights.

It was in just this way that Blaine made known his dramatic resignation from President Harrison's cabinet. One hot afternoon in 1892—Saturday, June 4—when nearly all of Washington except a remnant of Congress had left the city for Minneapolis, where the Republican National Convention was about to assemble, a telephone message came to the office of one of the two great press associations that Mr. Blaine would like to see a reporter. As this was a request of almost daily occurrence no special importance was attached to it, and a typewriter, a boy in his teens, was sent over to the secretary's residence on Lafayette Square. Here Mr. Blaine met him at the door and handed him an envelope containing some sheets of paper. The boy leisurely went back to the office, opened the envelope, and handed its contents to the news editor; two minutes later the whole office was in a state of excitement and the telegraph operators were sending broadcast the correspondence between President Harrison and James G. Blaine that ended their friendship and created a vacancy in the office of secretary of state.

A notable example of a man who has an intelligent idea of the proper relations of the newspaper reporter to the public is Speaker Reed. He is never afraid to meet a reporter or to tell the truth. He does not patronize him or abuse him; neither does he at all times give the information sought. He can say no as readily and firmly as he says yes, but he gossips with newspaper correspondents with whom he is acquainted with practically the same freedom that he shows to a personal and political friend, and the result of his manliness is the almost universal praise of his leadership in

the House and the extraordinary good will recently shown by the newspaper press toward his higher political aspirations.

Assistant Secretary of the Navy Roosevelt is another striking example of the truthful, fearless man in public life. The work of the Civil Service Commission while he was a member of it was carried on behind glass doors, and any man, whether congressman, public official, newspaper reporter, or private citizen, who complained of unfair treatment was given an opportunity to examine the records of the commission and encouraged to point to a case of improper operation of the law. In the Navy Department he pursues the same policy.

United States Senators Hanna, Lodge, Aldrich, and Gorman and Representatives Dingley and Bailey are other examples of those active in managing public affairs who understand the advantage of using the newspapers freely as a means of communication between themselves and the public and who regard newspaper men as members of a profession as honorable and useful as that of law or of medicine.

To one not thoroughly conversant with the practices of public men in Washington it may seem incredible that they would descend to misrepresentation and downright falsehood to counteract the effect of a foolish action or an unwise utterance; but well-authenticated instances of such moral cowardice are so numerous as to leave no room for an argument as to the relative truthfulness of public men and Washington correspondents.

During the closing days of the exciting extra session in October, 1893, when the Senate found itself in deadlock and unable to reach a vote on the Sherman silver purchase repeal bill passed by the House in August, one of the best known newspaper and magazine writers in the United States came to Washington to write a few characteristic articles, giving, in his own peculiarly graphic style, pen pictures of the obstinate Senate dawdling away its time while the country demanded the passage of the bill which it was earnestly hoped would restore business prosperity.

After the sessions of the Senate had been described, and Vice-President Stevenson, the presiding officer of the body, had given his views as to the power (or the lack of it) of the Senate to force the question to a vote, the writer suggested to this correspondent that he seek an interview with the president *pro tempore* of the Senate, a man who had spent many years in public life and who was undoubtedly the ablest parliamentarian on the Democratic side and the one possessing the most thorough acquaintance with the rules of the Senate. Accordingly the business cards of the two correspondents were sent to the senator by his own trusted messenger, who was in charge of the room of the committee of which the senator was chairman. Shortly the messenger returned with the information that if the correspondents would take chairs in the committee-room the senator would join them.

In about ten minutes he came. His callers rose and the writer, who had a nodding acquaintance with the senator, introduced the visiting correspondent, and with both the senator cordially shook hands. It was then explained to him that a talk was desired on the subject of the anomalous legislative status of the Repeal Bill, with a view to ascertaining why the deadlock could not be broken. The senator talked with freedom, emphasis, and volubility. He quoted precedents for a like condition of things and cited rulings which he as presiding officer had made in similar cases.

During the interview the senator's messenger, an intelligent man who was formerly prominent in politics and in the legislature of a southern state, sat near, where he heard every word that was said, and a congressman was also present, impatiently anxious to take the senator away to keep an appointment. Two or three times the congressman coughed and brought himself to the attention of the senator, who said, "All right, judge, in a moment." The interview continued for upwards of twenty minutes, the senator talking all the time and occasionally answering questions put to him by his callers.

At an opportune moment the correspondent who was a stranger to the senator put to him the question that all the time had been trembling on his tongue, by directly asking the reason why Vice-President Stevenson, as presiding officer of the Senate and presumably in favor of the Repeal Bill, could not cut off debate by refusing to recognize the opposition senators, and arbitrarily put the question to a vote. Rising from his chair, his little eyes growing smaller and brighter, his lips curling to an angle that reversed the curl of his long, rat-tail, tawny mustache, and drawing up his shoulders in that amusing manner so characteristic of him when instructing the Republican senators in the principles of parliamentary law, the senator brought his fist down upon the table and said, "Because, sir, I don't believe he would live to accomplish it. Certainly he would not be permitted to do such a thing."

This the senator repeated, and explained that he meant by it that if any presiding officer should attempt thus to override the will of the minority he would be dragged from his high place and prevented by physical force from putting the question to a vote. Before making this statement the senator was asked why it was that Vice-President Morton had been unable to put the Force Bill to a vote in the Fifty-first Congress, when the Republican party was clamoring for it. "Why," said the senator in his most impressively solemn tones, "simply because he couldn't. No one but God could have invested him with the authority, and I question whether he could get it even from that high source."

After this statement had also been explained and amplified there were a few words of polite leave-taking and the impatient congressman was permitted to go away with the senator.

The following day the interview was published in the *New York Sun*, conspicuously, as it deserved to be, and the

senator was frightened at his words, which had sounded so brave in the privacy of the committee-room. Rising in his place in the Senate, he denied having made the remark that the presiding officer would not live to put the question to a vote if he attempted it, and then, encouraged, apparently, by the approving nods of his colleagues around him, actually denied that he had been interviewed at all! He admitted that a reporter whom he had never seen before met him in the corridor as he was hurrying to his committee-room and asked him a few questions about the Senate deadlock, which he answered offhand and in the report of which he had been entirely misquoted. The Senate listened to the denial with great solemnity, the messenger who had been present at the interview looking as solemn as the others, and the able senator took his seat with a smile that seemed to say, "Well, I have proved two more newspaper correspondents to be liars"—as indeed, in the minds of many of his hearers, he probably had succeeded in doing.

There are indications that the policy of secrecy is to be abandoned by the McKinley administration. The president early set a good example by assigning a day for meeting all the representatives of the newspapers at the capital, by attending the dinner of The Gridiron Club, composed of forty Washington correspondents, and by letting it be known that the reporters are at liberty to call upon him and the members of his cabinet for information on public affairs. The officials of his administration have stated that they are at home to newspaper correspondents during business hours, and there are other signs that the era of friendliness between public men and newspaper reporters will be restored with the return of general prosperity to the country, unless, indeed, the good resolutions of the new cabinet officials are forgotten with the coming of the new year, as, unfortunately, they are quite apt to be.

ELECTRICITY IN THE THEATER.

BY GEORGE HELI GUY.

THE stage is a microcosm, and on it, within a very narrow and limited space, one has to reproduce, as closely as conditions will allow, with the utmost approach to absolute fidelity, the real conditions of society, of natural scenery, of disaster, and of the course of nature in the seasons and under all the variations of storm and calm. Obviously a very subtle and delicate agent, dispensing with bulk in its mechanism, cleanly in its character, and invisible in its means of application, is necessary to meet these conditions in a manner which will best attain the result of perfect illusion; and this exacting requirement is more adequately met by electricity than by any other means at present at the command of the stage manager.

It is a well-known fact that the first theaters had no need of artificial illumination, as the performance took place in the day and there was no necessity for stage lights and stage-lighting effects. It will be manifest that, as the histrionic art advanced, the use of oil and of candles was also found antagonistic to anything in any way commensurate with modern ideas of what could be attained in stage lighting. It was not until the invention and use of gas that any spectacular effects were attempted or possible, and what is known to every theatrical man as a "gas bank" made its appearance and became a recognized stage appliance and adjunct. The ease with which, from the bank, gas could be regulated, raised, and lowered invited many innovations in the matter of spectacular display. Then came the utilization of the calcium-light and the lime-light, by means of which a beam of light could be directed upon the stage to accentuate the effect of special scenes or figures. All this, however, was extremely and severely limited. The introduction of electric lighting and power has broadened the field in an illimitable degree, so that

its possibilities to-day are limited only by the ingenuity of the stage electrician and the depth of the *impresario's* purse.

To the public, by far the greater part of the interest in and comprehension of the part played by electricity in the theater is centered in its application to lighting; but even a cursory investigation into the adoption of electric power in stage mechanism and accessories reveals the imminence of a sweeping revolution in power methods and the extensive subordination of manual and hydraulic energy to electricity. Even in this transitional state of theatrical methods, the uses, other than lighting, of electricity in theaters have become more numerous and important than the lay public can possibly conceive.

It is hardly necessary to say that nearly all the signaling of the stage management, the raising of the curtain, the working of the traps, etc., is done electrically. The mechanical devices employed to imitate sounds of moving ice, thunder, wind, rain, and other phenomena are located at quite a distance from the stage manager, and on the perfection of the system of electric signaling by which he commands his small army of stage hands who work them may depend the effectiveness of a whole scene.

In the best theaters the use of the telephone has been most comprehensively developed. It connects the manager with all the departments of the house. Seated in his sanctum off the box-office, he is in equally prompt and expedient touch with the treasurer, whose life is being made weary with "dead-beats" and "professionals" soliciting the privileges of a performance of which they will often be the most uncharitable and uncompromising of critics, and the Cerberus at the stage door, who has scarcely less onerous duties, keeping a stern front against too susceptible "Johnnies" and taking charge of the current of outside

business that sets toward the back of the house from morning to midnight.

The telephone also enables the manager to speak with the engineer who regulates the steam effects on the stage, the temperature of the stage and the auditorium, and the general ventilation of the building. The electrician may be consulted when there are fluctuations or interruptions in the supply of current, or instructed to turn on an extra bank of ornamental lights inside the house when the sight of the legend "Standing Room Only" in the lobby warms the managerial heart. When there is "big line" at the box-office, the manager may telephone to the stage manager to hold back the ringing up of the curtain, which saves those already seated from being disturbed when the play begins, and the late-comers from disappointment.

One specially interesting use of the telephone in the theater is that made by the physician attending the play. He leaves his seat number at the box-office, so that if he is called up during the performance he may be immediately warned by an usher. He can thus find out whether the case to which he may be summoned is urgent, or whether he can go back and enjoy the rest of the play.

In quite a number of instances the telephone as well as the telegraph has recently been used on the stage, and made to take a part in the plot of the play. How effectively this feature can be employed is seen in Bronson Howard's "Henrietta," which seems to hold a long lease on the public favor. In this connection may be mentioned also the advantage to which the telephone has been turned by a Russian conjurer in giving a demonstration of the ostensible wonders of "second sight." His apparatus consisted of two very sensitive telephones, a little larger than a twenty-five-cent piece and about one third of an inch thick. This tiny metallic box contained an electromagnet, and its lid represented the diaphragm. The conductors formed a somewhat flexible semi-circle, which by a light spring kept the receivers close to the ear. The wires were then carried down the body, hidden in the

clothing, and out by the soles of the feet to the carpet, under which the connections were secretly disposed. The receivers and their retaining clamp were completely concealed by a wig, in conjunction with a plentiful supply of whiskers. After being blindfolded, the man was led to various points in the auditorium, and, with his back to the audience, quickly made in each case the necessary connection with the battery. He was then called upon to read a letter or describe various articles laid on a distant table. The letter or the articles were so placed that a confederate, who had a transmitter close to his mouth, could easily see them by peering through a small orifice. He communicated to the medium in a low voice the necessary particulars, which were repeated, to the edification and no slight astonishment of the auditors.

The telephone is also used to a great extent for the ordering of public tickets, to be called for at the office. A clever electrical system has been introduced which obviates the many clumsy features of the usual plan of selling tickets for one performance in several blocks, each block being in charge of an attendant at different points of the city. In the old method large batches of seats were often left on hand which under the new plan might have been disposed of. In this system all the stations are connected electrically. Each station has duplicate electrical apparatus, and a sale at one station is instantly recorded at all the other stations and at the box-office.

The fire-alarm system of the theater is operated entirely by electricity. Signal or alarm boxes are distributed throughout the house, one being respectively on the stage, in the flies, the auditorium, the box-office, the bill room, the carpenter's shop, and the cellar. All these are in circuit with the adjacent fire station. Many theaters now have automatic alarms, with thermostatic attachments, which give their own warning to the fire station as soon as their surrounding temperature rises above a certain point. No risks, however, are taken. Each connection is tested every evening before

the performance by communication with the fire department, and a response must be received. A fire patrol is always on guard, and during every performance the whole house is patrolled. One part of the duty of this officer is to watch the treatment and handling of the fire effects on the stage. Another unrecognized but none the less real and exacting task which nightly engages much of his attention is the picking up of lighted cigarette stumps behind the curtain. The law now compels a theater to publish on each of its programs the position of the fire doors serving as exits on every floor of the building. The fire patrol must see that these doors are closed, but not locked, throughout the performance.

After the fearful fire at the Ring Theater, in Vienna in 1881, in which five hundred lives were lost, several European countries promulgated certain regulations for promoting the safety of audiences in case of incipient fire. One of these was that every theater be supplied with a sheet-iron curtain, by which, in case of necessity, the auditorium could be completely isolated from the stage. This curtain, which was enormously heavy, had to be counterbalanced by massive iron weights; but so evenly was the weight distributed that the screen could be raised or lowered instantly by the pressure of a button controlling an electromagnetic adjustment. The first theater in Europe to use the electric iron curtain was the Comédie Française, in Paris, and the installation was made by an American electric company. This curtain is worked by a two-horse-power motor, and can be lowered at a maximum rate of four and one half feet in a second. In many theaters the iron curtain is now superseded by one of asbestos, which is infinitely less cumbersome and equally serviceable.

One of the boldest applications of electricity in theatrical operations is that made in the electric turntable stage of the Munich Court Theater. Throughout the stage, both in the "under machinery" and in the "top machinery," the actuating motive power is a combination of manual labor, counterweights, and electricity. The ac-

tual "turntable" consists of three floors, *i. e.*, the stage floor, the "first mezzanine," and the "second mezzanine," firmly framed together. The whole of this structure rests on a number of rollers, which run on tram-lines circular in plan. The turntable can be easily moved around to any position. The building of this pretentious structure was undertaken, it is said, with a view to filling the requirements of Wagnerian operas, which involve many and rapid changes of scenery. It gives particular facilities for mounting several scenes at the same time on different sections, and then moving them quickly into position.

Germany has the credit of being exceptionally progressive in the utilization of electricity in stage-craft, and much of this advance is the outcome of the enterprise and ingenuity of Herr Lautenschlaeger, the inventor of the structure just described. Herr Lautenschlaeger has adopted electric power for moving a great deal of gear in "aerial" work, and many minor appliances which facilitate intercommunication on the stage. In addition to this he works the whole of the heavy property elevators, as well as the rapid passenger elevators in the theaters under his direction, electrically. Nearly all these appliances can be operated from a central regulating board, at the side of the proscenium opening, where the engineer is in good view of the scenery.

Doubtless electric power will soon, in many instances, even in America, take the place of hydraulics in stage-land. Electric motors would serve equally well for both "top machinery" and "under machinery," and theater managers would be able to score many points of economy by a wider employment of electric energy. In point of fact it is now proposed to build in this country an "electric" theater, in which everything behind the curtain will be operated by electricity. The drops, borders, curtains, the side scenes, and in fact every mechanism which is now actuated by stage hands will be under the direction of the electrician at the prompt wing. This will be accomplished by a series of small but powerful electric motors, each working

on an independent circuit and all within easy control of the operator at the switch-board.

One of the best known instances of the employment of the electric motor on the stage is that in which the finish of a horse-race is simulated. The scene is most realistic. All the lights are extinguished, and, after a few moments, out of the gloom the flying horses appear at the back of the stage in a blaze of light. They seem to be straining every nerve and fairly flying past the landscape. Fences and trees disappear behind them with startling rapidity, and when at last the finish is near one of the horses gradually works forward to the judge's stand and comes in winner by a neck. The secret of the illusion is that the picket fence behind which the horses appear to be running, and the scenery beyond, are set in motion by electric motors, giving the effect of rapid motion of the animals in a contrary direction. The horses are galloping over a revolving drum, and instead of moving forward are actually secured by wire-rope traces. In Dumas' play "*Le Capitaine Paul*," the sails of the good ship *Ranger* swell before a lively breeze all through the third act. The bellying of the canvas, which is very real, is produced by an electric fan blowing across the stage.

The resources of stage music are immeasurably augmented by the electric organ now found in many theaters. The *console* is portable, so that the organist can place his keyboard in any part of the building and produce the effect of music actually on the stage, receding, advancing, or dying out in the far distance. This instrument, besides its wonderful flexibility, has exceptional power of expression.

In the matter of ventilation, the electric motor is preeminently the agency to be employed, but it has not yet reached the theaters of this country, concerning the ventilation of the majority of which it can only be said that it is lamentably, if not shamefully, behind the times. Many public buildings are fitted with capacious shafts through which fresh air is drawn and impure air expelled by blowers worked electrically. It is

inevitable that before long this system will be adopted in theaters.

Another direction in which electricity must soon come to the relief of the half-stifed winter audiences of American theaters is in the method of heating the house. Just as the cool weather of this fall set in, a paragraph appeared in a New York daily paper on the unqualified pleasure with which a theater performance could be enjoyed under the then existing atmospheric conditions. The item continued:

Now the temperature of the theaters is comfortable and the ventilation good. Within a week or two the managers will turn on the steam, and the same old parboiled, half-cooked feeling that takes possession of the audiences during the winter months will set in. There is never any escape from that until the 1st of June, when again the steam is turned off. It will never be abated or varied during all that time. To the men in charge of the heating of the theaters there is no middle course. When audiences need air in the winter time there is no easier way of getting it than by opening the doors and allowing the cold wind to blow on the back of their heads. It is the absence of the steam that makes this season the most agreeable in the year for the theater-goers, so far as their personal comfort is concerned.

This, though perfectly true, is a barbarous admission to have to make. Steam will soon be considered out of date for theater heating purposes, but in the meantime theater managers have no excuse whatever for the unwholesome and distressing overheating of their auditoriums. At a merely nominal cost a thermostatic device could be attached to the plant which would be self-regulating and keep the air of the auditorium at an equable and agreeable temperature, in spite of the heating system attendant. But in England they have a still better way. Many London theaters use electric radiators. By this simple and convenient means the whole clumsy and expensive plant of steam-heating pipes and maintenance is done away with. In one case the ordinary heating equipment was out of gear, but the house had to be warmed for the evening performance. An order was given to an electric firm at eleven in the morning, and by six in the evening the theater was being heated electrically. The im-

provement in the quality of the air and the comfort of the audience was so marked that the steam system in that theater has never been repaired, and electric heating is now the vogue in some London theaters. The atmosphere of the auditorium is kept sweet and genial, and "theater headache" is a thing of the past.

The lighting system of a theater may be divided into four parts, the front of the house, the lobby, the auditorium, and the stage. The front of the house and the lobby each has its own switchboard, entirely independent of the rest of the house. The lighting in both the auditorium and the stage is controlled from the stage switchboard. The ingenuity of the theater electrician is every season more severely taxed to devise showy and attractive placards of light for the nightly heralding of the play holding the boards. Frequently several signs on one house front are made interchangeable, and they are flashed in and out by means of a keyboard. The lighting of the foyer lends itself to most artistic treatment, and some of the buildings of late construction exhibit in their entrance halls a perfect blending of light and architectural beauty. A notable example is the foyer of the Brooklyn Montauk Theater. It is decorated in rich crimson, and is designed to represent a drawing-room of the time of Louis XV. The side walls are paneled in exquisite and delicate relief work, and the beauty of the apartment is enhanced by the diffused light filtering through semi-opaque glass shields in the ceiling and beneath the cornice.

Formerly in the lighting of the auditorium the number of lamps to be installed was the first consideration, their distribution being a secondary matter. Now the greatest attention is paid to securing the maximum decorative or merely illuminative effect from every bank of lamps. In other words, the lighting of the auditorium is now on a strictly scientific basis. To show the tendency in this direction, the electrician of one of the New York theaters was recently asked to devise a new lighting scheme for the interior of the house. This he did, with the result that, although the number of lamps in circuit was considerably reduced, a much greater light efficiency was secured.

Since the first stage arc was used as a focusing lamp in the old California Theater in San Francisco, in 1878, the progress in stage lighting has more than kept pace with other branches of electrical work. Its resources and its range of effects are infinite. But not even casual reference to this subject can be made without mentioning the name of Mr. J. C. Mayrhofer, to whose fertile inventive faculty a large majority of the novel methods and designs in the useful, decorative, and spectacular lighting of the American stage are due. As a proof of Mr. Mayrhofer's ability in this field it may be mentioned that recently some of his effects, devised quite in the ordinary way of business, to illustrate certain sensational episodes in a coal mine, have been taken to England by special request and exhibited before wildly enthusiastic audiences at the largest theaters in the heart of the mining districts.

WHAT IS SOCIOLOGY?

BY C. BOUGLÉ.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "LA REVUE DE PARIS."

LET us choose a small town. In order to fasten our ideas we will call it Saint Paul. What perspectives does Saint Paul offer to sociologic eyes? Let us make a rapid tour of the town. We perceive among the inhabitants a sort of family air, and, entering into conversation with one

and another of them, observe that they have the same way of speaking and even hold the same opinions. In a word, from contact with these people we are quickly made to feel the unity of the place. This ensemble of traits common to its inhabitants, which distinguishes it from other towns, we can

study by itself; this will be taking up the work of sociology already.

But as well as the resemblances which unite them, the differences which separate the people of Saint Paul offer us objects of study. Enumerating the passers-by that I observe in an afternoon, I may classify them roughly as musicians, bicyclists, devotees, men of the world, soldiers, workmen, etc. That the individuals thus classed are not examples of these classes only, that the quality of soldier or bicyclist does not exhaust all their qualities, goes without saying. They do not belong to a single social circle, but to several which interpenetrate one another. It is rare that a person comes from only one society.

Does a society exist wherever individuals are found assembled? That depends on what you mean by assembled. The juxtaposition of people seated by chance beside each other in a diligence is not enough to constitute a society. If it has not changed in any way the state of mind of the individuals, and each one of them continues to think just as if he were alone, then individual psychology is sufficient to explain what takes place in each of them; sociology has nothing to do here. But let any incident whatever, the appearance of a carbine, or merely the sight of a rival diligence, make their hearts beat in unison, turn the thoughts toward the same end, organize the activities, then a society is born.

Whatever be the passing emotion or durable influence, rule expressly formulated or only felt, obligation or imitation, love or hate, any place where from the coexistence of individuals, however few they may be, spring new phenomena which would not be born without that coexistence, a field is opened to sociology.

In the genus thus defined it will be necessary to find the species, and this search may proceed from the consideration of characteristics, exterior and most superficial, at first sight. For example, since all society consists of a relation between unities, ought we not first to take their number into consideration? The distinction between great and small societies is more

fruitful than one might think and more easy to forget. The number of individuals present, in increasing the number of their possible combinations, multiplies the complexity of the social relations.

Likewise the question of time. In matters of social relations it is not just to say that time has nothing to do with the matter. You comprehend that a society united for an hour about a *table d'hôte* can scarcely extend between its members anything but slight and fragile bands. Oppose to this society of a day a durable society, and the bands it imposes are almost unbreakable.

Furthermore, of how great importance is the similitude or the diversity of the unities that a society encloses. You understand that the social relations might take very different forms according as the individuals in connection were of the same race, nation, or business, or of different businesses, hostile nations, or irreducible races.

Still further, do the individuals belong wholly to the society, as one belonged to certain corporations of the Middle Ages, or do they belong to it only on certain sides of their activity, as one belongs to a club? Is their society unorganized like an electoral body or organized like a regiment? Does the organization subordinate them or put them on a footing of equality? Upon all these questions depend both the quantity and the quality of social relations.

But a science could not content itself with classifying forms; it wishes to discover between certain given phenomena certain constant relations, and prove that the latter vary as do the former. It is this that sociology would attempt to do in observing the consequences of the forms that it will have classified.

Leaving to metaphysics, or at least reserving for the end of the science, the determination of the total influence of society in itself, we content ourselves with proving first that, wherever certain social forms are given, the different activities realized through them are modified in consequence.

Let us observe the phenomena in which the different activities of men manifest and incorporate themselves in some sort—

riches, usages, monuments and codes, dogmas and poems. We shall find here the mark of different social forms, and, for example, of the number of individuals or their heterogeneity, of the degree or the quality of their organization. In a word, we shall find that economic phenomena as well as judicial, moral as well as religious or esthetic, vary from the forms of society.

The interest taken by each individual in the common product diminishes proportionally to the increase in the number of sharers; the simple extension of communistic association relaxes and weakens in some sort its strength. Fourier fixed at fifteen hundred the maximum number of the members of his phalanstery.

Taking into account not only their quantity but their heterogeneity or their organization, analogous relations appear. For example, do not the principal differences between the economy of the family and that of the city amount to this, that it is a question of providing for the needs, in one case, of unities relatively homogeneous joined by blood, united in the patriarchal order, and hardly distinguishing their private interests from the common needs; in the other case of unities relatively heterogeneous, already more conscious of their private wants than of the common interests? An economist proved recently that most of the economic phenomena which are familiar to us—credit, capital, commerce, properly speaking—suppose the existence of very large groups of heterogeneous unities, organized and centralized, and that most of the errors of political economy consist in the application of certain economic categories to epochs where their conditions of existence have not yet appeared.

The judicial categories are submitted to analogous dependency. More clearly even than the transformations of economy, the transformations of law reveal the influences of the quantity, for example, or of the heterogeneity of the associated unities.

Although less easily observable, the transformations morals owe to social forms are not less profound. Is it not a fact that the more narrow a group becomes the more

numerous, detailed, and urgent are the prescriptions it applies to individuals? Does not the mere enlargement of the group force it to limit its demands to more general and more abstract rules?

Likewise the number and nature of the rules vary according as the individual belongs wholly, body and soul, to the society that formulates them, or belongs to several societies at the same time. Thus the different societies on which we are dependent limit and sometimes neutralize each other, so much so that multiplicity of social circles has been considered the constitutive factor of the independence of personalities.

More than their multiplicity, the homogeneity or heterogeneity of their members and the stability or instability of their organization color diversely the morals. In an open, mixed society, where people of very different races and conditions intermingle, morals risk being uncertain, variable, and lax; on the contrary, they will be more rigid, inflexible, and, as it were, petrified in an exclusive society which repels every heterogeneous element.

Social forms even shape religion. There are necessary differences between a religion of sect and a religion of state. In indirect ways the mere extension of the number of believers may act upon beliefs in rendering them less particular, less precise, less concrete. That the masterpieces of art are often shaped by the forms of society is a truth a hundred times demonstrated to-day.

All these examples suffice to give an idea of the considerable number of relations that might be discovered between the forms of society and its accompaniments, between the different relations which unite individuals and their different activities. When once the social forms are classified, to study the effects produced by their different kinds upon a branch of our activities considered apart, or inversely, taking one of these social forms by itself, to study the effects it produces upon the different branches of our activities, this is the task of sociology.

But admitting that these difficult tasks

are finally finished, will it be sufficient to unite a certain number of individuals, during a certain lapse of time and under a certain hierarchy, in order to obtain a symphony like those of Beethoven or dogmas like those of Christianity? Does not history meet with societies equally dense or equally heterogeneous which do not enjoy laws, morals, or economies absolutely similar? It would be astonishing if it were otherwise; are not very many influences—all those of nature on one side, all those of spirit on the other—capable sometimes of seconding, sometimes of counteracting, the influence of social forms?

Doubtless, but the statement of these interferences is not made in order to disprove sociology; is not each science content to study one side of things? Sociology does not undertake to show the reason of all historic phenomena; it wishes only to make apparent to what degree social forms modify them. It will readily admit that numerous causes, material or ideal, concur for the transformations of society, but it limits its ambition to knowing systematically one of them. It does not pretend to be, in itself, the philosophy of history; it would wish to be, more modestly, a social science.

To merit this title it must not content itself with showing the consequences of social forms; it must also discover the causes. To tell the truth, to attempt to fix the causes of society in general would be to risk hemming yourself in with unverifiable hypotheses. Here, too, sociology must bravely leave to metaphysics, or reserve at least for the end of the science, the questions of origin, and take society as it is given. Society being given, what forces modify its forms? Such questions as this can be answered by observation.

The idea of race has long ruled history, and it is not strange that, after it has been attempted to explain almost all the great historic events by the antagonism of races, the attempt should be made to explain the different social forms in the same way. But without doubt there is a place to limit the value of these ethnographic considerations. It is easy to see that among very

different races analogous social forms might prosper, or, reciprocally, contrary social forms among related races. Even more, in the same society individuals of very different blood might find themselves closely united. If race explains certain characteristics of societies it cannot be held responsible for all of them.

The configuration and climatic situation of a country also exercise an action upon the multiplicity and the organization of the social relations. Yet, without doubt, upon different soils analogous social forms may flourish, or different social forms upon similar soils. The same shores have seen, in their turn, societies large or small, inorganic or organized, democratic or aristocratic. Is this saying that terrestrial forms are incapable of modifying social forms? No, but that they are not alone in modifying them. Besides, nature acts upon society oftenest only through the spirit; the spirit acts upon society of itself, with its own forces, needs or tastes, feelings or ideas.

The action of the needs called material—which does not prevent them from being psychologic forces besides—is doubtless the most striking of all. The effort of men to produce riches exercises a thousand pressures upon the constitution of societies. Social density depends closely upon modes of economic production; one form of collective ownership tends to increase it, while another form of private ownership tends to diminish it. In the same way, does not an agricultural system, in opposition to an industrial system, tend to limit the extension of the community? On the other hand, does not the development of an industrial system, in carrying specialization to infinity, increase the heterogeneity of the social unities? Or does not the extension of commerce impel the most heterogeneous individuals to unite, in spite of differences of race and language, into an organized society? The so-called materialist philosophy of history has proved by a hundred examples that economy exercises upon social forms actions otherwise determinant than those of race or soil. Where this philosophy creates for itself an illusion, is when it believes it has found

in this determination the only key of all social being.

It is necessary to measure, after the action of economic forces, the action of moral forces upon social forms. For example, important economic movements corresponded to the emancipation of the slaves; yet it is true that in this matter the last word rested and rests to-day with conscience. Conscience may go bravely against our surest economic interests, and we are paid, or, to be more exact, we pay for the knowledge. Rights and duties may sometimes second, sometimes oppose the action of interests upon social forms. It is especially in the religious form that beliefs have thus led the social world.

Art may claim the same capacities in its turn; it also intermingles, multiplies, enlarges the social groups, and more than once in modern times, as in antiquity, esthetic communions have surpassed or outlived political associations. No one activity of the mind has the monopoly of social action. From the humblest to the noblest, from those called material to those called ideal, all may cooperate in the modifications of society. Thus, after having sought in the transformations of economy, law, morals, religion, and art the consequences of these modifications, we seek there their causes.

But is there not here a circle? Can the same phenomenon be at once the cause and the consequence of another? First, in a social matter nothing is more frequent than such actions and reactions. Furthermore, we took care when we passed in review some of the consequences of society

to remark that other influences might interfere with any given one, and that it alone was far from explaining all of economy or morals, religion or art. Even as we recognize in our various activities something more than simple consequences of the modifications of social forms, we reserve to ourselves the right of seeking there causes of these same modifications.

What does geography do to become a science? It is not content to describe; it classifies terrestrial forms, basins and bays, peaks and plateaus. It studies their effects, it seeks in physical conditions reasons for the distribution of inhabitants and the position of cities. It looks, on the other hand, for the reasons of geographical phenomena themselves. In a word, to place yourself at the geographic point of view is to observe terrestrial forms, their consequences, and their causes. In the same way, to place yourself at the sociologic point of view will be to observe social forms, their consequences, and causes.

Thus when we have classified the different social circles which cross each other in Saint Paul, when we have observed the effects they produce upon the entire life of its inhabitants, when we have sought in this same life all that may modify the quantity or the quality of these same circles, then and then only will we have a sociologic knowledge of Saint Paul.

And, if we had such a knowledge of Saint Paul, would we not possess sociology entire? For as Claude Bernard has said, "If I knew anything thoroughly, I would know everything."

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE SOUTHERN NEGRO.

BY W. T. HEWETSON.

IN considering the peculiar social life of the negroes of the South, the usual broad distinction between life in the city and in the country should be observed. The negro's propensity to imitation, which has so frequently been remarked upon, is in the city carried to a ludicrous extreme.

Indeed negro society in the city is merely a reflection, or rather a caricature, of white society.

If, then, we would see negro society in its most interesting phases, we must leave the city for the country. We must visit the negro in his rural home, make one with

him at his "cawn shuckies," funerals, and festivals, and join him, torch in hand, as he follows the hounds through forest and fen in pursuit of the possum or the coon.

There is not much variety in the houses of the southern negro. The prevailing type is a one-room log cabin, caulked with clay and roofed with boards. A rude stone chimney leans heavily against one end, and a door and one or two small windows admit a modicum of light and air to the gloomy interior. In the dooryard a number of shaggy dogs and half-clothed children are tumbling about on the hard, bare ground, in the most friendly confusion, while a half-dozen pigs, of the variety that are "all grunt and no bacon," go prowling about. The fence which surrounds this seriocomic scene of contented wretchedness, if, perchance, that useless barrier has not long since disappeared to feed the great open fireplace within, is bedecked with a parti-colored array of blankets and old clothes. A perspective of pig-sty and cattle-shed completes the sketch.

However, we would be much mistaken if we pictured to ourselves the inmates of these cabins sitting in sackcloth and ashes, bewailing their wretched lot. We are too apt to attribute to others our own sentiments, and to conclude that because we would feel oppressed in their circumstances they must feel so too. Were we to sit down in any of the miserable abodes in the so-called black belt, we would no doubt see much to call forth our pity, but we could not fail to observe also that the general atmosphere is one of cheerful content.

Slavery has, perhaps, left no deeper trace anywhere than in the domestic life of the freedmen. Under an institution which permitted the separation of husband from wife, forcibly and forever, there could be no stability of the marital relations; nor could the obligations of parents to children or of children to parents be enforced where the mother was sent to labor in the field while her babe was left to be cared for by others, or to grow up, like Topsy, without any attention whatever. In fact, the family, in its truest and most sacred sense, has been

grafted on negro society only since emancipation. It is not surprising, therefore, if it still lacks many of those religious and moral restraints which make it the keystone of Anglo-Saxon civilization.

Among the consequences growing out of this imperfection in their domestic arrangements may be mentioned the peculiar position of the negro women—a position of greater relative prominence, perhaps, than has ever been occupied by the women of any other race. Besides enjoying absolute equality with the men in all social affairs, they work side by side with them in the oyster houses and tobacco factories, as well as in the cotton and tobacco fields. It is no uncommon sight to see a mother chopping wood by her door or plowing in the field, while her children are tumbling in the dirt near by. As a natural result their homes are neglected, their children allowed to grow up in rags and dirt. The women themselves are often untidy in dress, uncleanly in habits; many of them smoke and rub snuff. In brief, they are strangers to those graces and accomplishments which should make them the chief factors in the uplifting of their people. It should not be forgotten, however, that in the majority of cases their condition is not of their own making; and it would be unjust to the negro women of the South not to add that there are among them many excellent housekeepers—women of true refinement and elevated character.

There is perhaps no more favorable place in which to study negro character and manners than the camp-meeting. This time-honored institution is no less social than religious in its nature. It is usually held in a partly cleared grove, under the auspices of the local clergy. Hither the colored population of the surrounding region flock, coming on foot, in carriages and wagons, in ox-carts and mule-carts, on horseback and mule-back—in short, by every conceivable mode of locomotion. Their dress is as varied as their vehicles. Indeed the negroes of the South are of all people the most cosmopolitan in the matter of dress. Clothes of every imaginable style, color, and "previous condition of servitude" are



AN AVERAGE NEGRO FARMHOUSE.

pressed into use, so that in this particular they present as great a variety as the beggars in the nursery rime.

As we approach the grove what a medley of sounds breaks upon our hearing!—the neighing of horses, the bellowing of cattle, the seesaw braying of mules, the laughter and screams of children, and joined with these a perfect babble of human voices, the whole forming a discordant din such as no human ear ever heard elsewhere. Entering the grounds, we pass bands of children, climbing, tumbling, romping, like so many troops of monkeys; gawky young fellows awkwardly making love to dusky beauties; groups of brawny men discussing abstruse points of theology with as much zeal and more harmony, perhaps, than a body of learned divinity doctors. Here and there a gossiping company of old "uncles" and "aunties" may be seen reviving the memories of bygone days. If we had time to stay we might gather from their talk a rare collection of folk-lore, stories of ghosts and haunted houses, and family legends of slavery times.

It would be impossible to remain long at a negro camp-meeting without coming across one of those unique combinations of garrulity and ignorance, the colored preacher. We could recognize him without an introduction. His huge brass-rimmed spec-

tacles, his battered stiff hat, his long black coat, somewhat faded and worn, and his cotton umbrella, tied with a string around the center, have been made familiar to us by the artist's pencil. He is usually self-appointed, beginning his clerical career as an exhorter and gradually assuming the title of preacher. His creed is so unlike that of any recognized religious body that it would doubtless puzzle him to tell to what denomination he belongs.

The maxim "Knowledge is power" has little application to the colored preacher. His very ignorance is oftentimes his greatest strength; for it has frequently been observed, especially in rural communities, that those preachers who have the most education have the least following. The reason is found in the negro's simplicity of character,



THE HEAD OF THE FAMILY.



A MELON PARTY.

a trait which leads him to avoid as far as possible all formality and restraint. Even his pastor, if he would have his church filled, must be a "jolly good fellow," giving himself no airs, but meeting his people without the semblance of affectation or reserve.

The colored preacher's sermon is a curiosity in homiletics. Like the contents of the witches' caldron in "Macbeth," it is made up of the most heterogeneous elements—of words and phrases taken from every available source and loosely joined together. But while he borrows freely without credit, he can no more be accused of plagiarism than the compiler of a dictionary, so different is the combination from anything ever before produced. His love for high-sounding and long-tailed words is as remarkable as his congregation's fondness for "shouting"; so that, between the exhortations of the preacher and the hearty responses of his hearers, a religious service might easily be mistaken for a drill in vocal gymnastics.

One of the chief features of every negro gathering of a social character is the sing-

ing. A musical people they undoubtedly are. Not a few have exhibited a high degree of talent in this respect; as, for example, Blind Tom, whose performances on the piano have delighted so many cultured audiences. The darky fiddler, once so prominent a feature of social gatherings, is still sought after in some communities. The popularity of so-called "Jubilee" singers and negro minstrels seems to increase with time. Many of the most popular songs in this country, such as "Old Kentucky Home," "The Fatal Wedding," and "Listen to the Mocking Bird," were composed by negroes.

For the origin of most of their songs we must go back to the days of slavery. Just as the laboring classes of England during the seventeenth century found expression for their struggles and sufferings in the popular ballads of the time, so the American slave gave vent to his afflictions and heartaches in song. He sang of his griefs—and they were many—of hardships and oppression, of loss of home, of separation from friends and relatives. In these songs one cannot fail to perceive a certain plaintive melody



YOUNG AFRO-AMERICA.

that seems to breathe forth centuries of patient suffering. But the songs of the negro were not all dictated by the tragic muse. Even in slavery there were bright, sun-kissed openings in the clouds of sorrow that darkened his life; and there is no better evidence of the natural cheerfulness and gaiety of his character than the comic and festive songs with which he was wont to celebrate these interspaces in his grief. The purely religious songs of the negro are often senseless combinations of words set to music, having neither rime nor meter. They abound in vain repetitions, and are usually strung out to an interminable length.

It would be strange if a people so imaginative were not superstitious. Indeed the negro is the most credulous of

creatures. He plants his crops, builds his house, treats his diseases, and, in short, regulates all the principal concerns of his life in accordance with some mysterious sign. The blacksnake, the ground-hog, and the whippoorwill are prophets, in whose forecasts he plants unwavering faith. The more im-



MELONS FOR TWO.

pressible carry about their persons a rabbit's foot, a piece of red flannel, or some charm, to ward off disease or woo the favor of providence. There is scarcely one who has not his story to tell of ghost or haunted house. Perhaps the most terrifying of their beliefs are those connected with the presence of death. If a whippoorwill should sound its mournful note near the window of a sick chamber all hope of the patient's recovery is relinquished; when death occurs all the pictures in the house are turned with their faces to the wall, and should any one be so hapless as to see the corpse in a mirror, by that sign his own doom is irrevocably sealed.

As might be supposed, many of their superstitions are intermixed with their religion. Their old men not only dream dreams, but, if their own testimony is to be credited, they also see visions. Some of them appear to rival the Maid of Orleans in the number and variety of their apocalyptic experiences. One white-haired seer professes with great earnestness to have been visited, Belshazzar-like, by a mysterious handwriting on the wall, which, strange to say, although he is wholly illiterate, he found no difficulty in deciphering. Others tell of encounters with the devil, more terrible even than those of St. Dunstan in his narrow smithy.

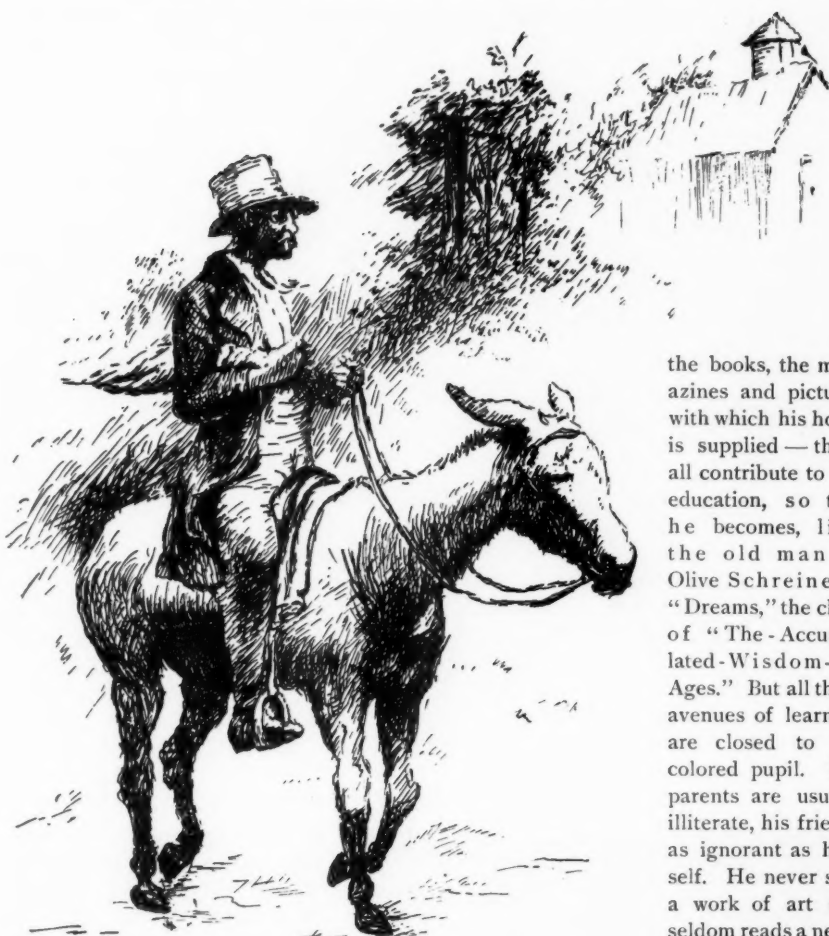
Those who describe the negro indiscriminately as a lazy do-nothing, content with a life of ignominious ease and complacent wretchedness, show little knowledge of his true character. Booker Washington comes nearer the truth when he says, adapting a phrase from Shakespeare, "Toil is the badge of all his tribe." In the cotton and tobacco fields, in factory and mine, on railroads and public highways, wherever there is hard, rough work to be done, the negro is relied upon to do it. He furnishes the brawn and muscle in the South to-day, just as he did in the days of slavery. Why, then, it may be asked, has he so little to show

for all his labor? It is because he has no idea of economy. His meager income is in part wasted on candy, tobacco, and gewgaws; much of it goes to feed the insatiable till of the rum-seller, and not a little is eaten up by secret societies, of which often he contributes to as many as there are days in the week.

Education, which alone could be expected to overcome these evils, is still in a very imperfect state in the South. Owing to lack of funds the public schools are kept open on an average of only ninety days in the year. Some towns of from three to five thousand inhabitants are wholly dependent upon private schools. The common school teachers receive from \$8 to \$20 a month. Poorly paid, they are also poorly trained; so that it is a common remark, "Any one can teach a negro school." If a pupil is bright he soon learns all his teacher knows, after which, of course, he leaves school. Then, if there is no better institution near, he becomes discouraged, gives up the struggle for an education, marries,



THE FIDDLER.



REV. EZEKIEL MOSES.

rents land, mortgages his crops, comes out in debt at the end of the year, and, after a few ineffectual efforts to better his condition, sinks back into a life of despairing misery.

But this is not all: the work of the schools, while deficient, is rendered still more inadequate by the home surroundings of the pupil. This cannot be better illustrated than by comparing the home influences of the white with those of the colored child. The former absorbs knowledge, unconsciously, from his environment. The instruction of parents, the conversation of friends and associates, the daily newspaper,

the books, the magazines and pictures with which his home is supplied — these all contribute to his education, so that he becomes, like the old man in Olive Schreiner's "Dreams," the child of "The - Accumulated - Wisdom - of - Ages." But all these avenues of learning are closed to the colored pupil. His parents are usually illiterate, his friends as ignorant as himself. He never sees a work of art and seldom reads a newspaper. From the society in which he

moves he derives little else than superstition, errors of speech, and false notions of men and things. Thus his mind becomes clouded and his moral nature warped.

But despite all these dark features of negro life, the colored people of the South have made commendable progress since emancipation. Their total wealth has increased from zero to approximately \$250,000,000, and this too in competition with a highly civilized and well-equipped race. Over 200,000 negro farmers now hold their land free of incumbrance. In the cities, the number of negroes who own their homes



A TRIP TO THE VILLAGE.

is large and constantly increasing, amounting in some places to more than a third of the colored population. Besides successful merchants, there are, in almost every city, prosperous carpenters, tailors, brick-masons, and other craftsmen; while under the practical training of such industrial schools as those at Tuskegee, Ala., and Hampton, Va., an army of skilled negro mechanics is slowly but surely winning its way into the manufacturing institutions of the South. The same steady improvement is noticeable

in agriculture. Instead of raising "scrub" cattle, and cabbages that never come to a head, as he did a few years ago, the negro farmer is studying the chemistry of the soil and the diversification of crops, and by the aid of improved methods and implements of agriculture he is increasing the productiveness of his farm at the same time that he is lessening the cost of production. He is also learning the more important lesson of thrift and economy. Clubs or conferences are held in which the people are taught, "in a plain, simple

manner, how to save money, how to farm in a better way, how to sacrifice—to live on bread and potatoes if need be—till they get out of debt and begin the buying of land." Moreover, organizations are formed for the purpose of purchasing land and escaping from the iniquitous mortgage system. In one community in Texas fifteen families, in five years, improved their houses and farms to the amount of \$15,000.

Very creditable, too, is the negro's progress in matters educational. Besides com-



UNCLE BEN (ONE HUNDRED YEARS OLD) AND HIS SEVENTH WIFE.

mon schools in every state, there are 162 higher-grade institutions for colored students. The standard of education is being steadily raised, the length of the school term increased, and the teachers are receiving higher pay and more thorough preparation. The result has been that in thirty years forty per cent of the illiteracy of the race has disappeared. Hundreds of well-educated preachers, editors, lawyers, doctors, and mechanics have gone forth from these schools, and have become centers for the diffusion of useful knowledge and improved methods of living among their race. Under the same influences the negro brain is becoming adaptive and creative. Over

fifty patents have been granted to negroes in recent years. Not a few full-blooded negroes have distinguished themselves in the various arts; they have occupied no mean rank as orators and as writers in the field of prose, while one gifted son of the race has recently evinced innate ability in the highest form of literature. Paul Laurence Dunbar's "Oak and Ivy" poems, with the later volume entitled "Lyrics of

Lowly Life," have been favored with an extended and laudatory introduction and criticism by America's most popular novelist, Mr. Howells.

With this increase of intelligence and wealth, and as a result of it, has come



A TYPICAL FARM SCENE.

social improvement. Already the outlines of a better social order are plainly visible. Old things are passing away: the "carpet-bagger" and "Kuklux" are no more; the one-room cabins are giving place to comfortable frame and brick dwellings; the people are deserting the old-style, illiterate preachers and are attaching themselves to spiritual guides more worthy of the cloth. With increase of knowledge has come in-



SEEING THE CIRCUS GO BY.



PLAYING "DABS."

crease of wants, and as their wants multiply they are resorting to industry and economy in order to satisfy them. Of course these improvements are as yet confined to certain sections, but the exception is fast becoming the rule. Under the sure and potent forces of education, industry, and religion, the negro race of the South is steadily advancing toward the highest civilization.

MEMORY.

BY VIRNA WOODS.

PALER than wreathes of mist and phantom moons,
 She comes adown the glimmering stair of dreams;
 Or rises from the billowy foam of streams
 That flow from thought's dark caves with murmurous tunes.
 And fainter is the music of her runes
 Than ghostly echo of the dying wind,
 Sobbing through autumn foliage seared and thinned;
 And with her shadowy hand she importunes.
 Dusky and dim her unbound tresses blow,
 On her fair face a shade of sadness lies
 And rises from the still deeps of her eyes.
 And evermore her white feet come and go,
 Softer than on the water falls the snow—
 Her feet that trod the ways of paradise.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

WINTER ENIGMAS.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M. D.

IN a western city that can claim the championship of mischievous youngsters, an old lady of my acquaintance one day saw a pair of street arabs trying to open the door of a vacant house in her next neighborhood.

"What are you doing there, Freddie?" she asked, recognizing one of the little sinners. "Where did you get that key?"

"Mrs. W—— let me have it," said the ready-witted scamp. "She thought she forgot a broom in there."

"Let me see that. Now look here, that key was never made to fit this door; I thought there must be something wrong. Get out of this, now, and stay out."

In similar terms one often feels tempted to dismiss the hearsay theories that pretend to explain the phenomena of health and disease. They may be plausibly introduced, but they can never be made to fit the facts of experience. In winter-time, especially, the results of unprejudiced observation would present hopeless enigmas, unless the observer begins to suspect that there must be something wrong about the traditional dogmas of hygiene.

Again and again the exponents of those dogmas stumble against the paradox that grievous and drug-defying "colds" become epidemic during a protracted thaw or lingering "Indian summer," but subside when winter gets its grip on the weather clerk. Catarrhs rage in March and November, but negotiate a truce in January. The Klondike Argonauts, too, reported a plague of contagious influenzas while their sleet-storms continued to alternate with spells of warm weather, but the first frost that unhorsed the Juneau mail-carrier seemed to have floored the lung-microbes, too, and according to last accounts La Grippe had relaxed her hold. The hearsay mongers

G—Dec.

then fall back on the old fallacy about the health-destroying tendency of "variable weather." It is true that a uniform low temperature—a climate of steady, hard winter frosts, like that of Russia and northern Ontario—generally goes hand in hand with a low death-rate; but perennial summer by no means precludes epidemics of the most malignant type, and as a permanent abode Newfoundland, Vancouver, and southern Chili, with their everlasting weather changes, would be out and out preferable to Egypt and Bengal. The capricious climate of Norway and Great Britain has evolved some of the stoutest tribes of the human species. In Patagonia, near the southern terminus of our continent, the whims of the climate would drive a weather-bureau sergeant crazy; warm rains alternate with snow-whirls and sultry sunshine with antarctic ice-blasts, all in the course of one day. But that does not prevent the natives from growing seven feet high and digesting a ragout of conger-eels and boiled bul-rushes.

Summing up the net result of those data, we find that a variable climate, including occasional frosts, does not prevent the enjoyment of exuberant health, while a uniform climate, excluding intervals of low temperature, implies no guaranty against the deadliest diseases—in other words, that much-maligned Jack Frost is nature's own microbe-killer, the best friend of consumptives, as well as of fever patients. Without the admission of that fact, so irreconcilable with old-school medical dogmas, a large number of yearly repeated phenomena would be wholly inexplicable.

Another enigma that cannot be unlocked with the keys of our conventional health theories is the fact that children—city children at least—are generally the first vic-

tims of contagious lung disorders. They begin to snivel and cough as soon as the snowbirds herald the advent of winter; they introduce catarrhs that spread from their playroom to the parlor and infect whole meeting-house assemblies, in spite of grace-assuring revivals. Shall we infer that the young of our species are particularly liable to the attacks of organic disorders? The very contrary is so evidently true that some humorists have denied the possibility of sickening a boy with green apples or affecting his physical comfort by barefoot races in the mud. Girls, left to the guidance of their instincts, will join the coasting orgies of their brothers, and return, soaking wet, with a reserve fund of health that would last them all winter if the snow would hold out. The neglected youngsters of our city slums manage to survive garbage picnics and coal-shed bivouacs, sitz baths in cess-pools, and surfeits in the dog-days.

But winter reverses the score, not because the god of blizzards is the Moloch of our cruel climate, but because city schools, under the present system of arrangements, are veritable hotbeds of lung epidemics, elaborately and ingeniously contrived hatcheries for the development of pulmonary disorders. The supply of artificial heat is generally in excess of actual needs, while the facilities for ventilation are not one tenth of what they might be and should be. In a temperature of 80° to 85° Fahrenheit scores of children are penned up for hours together, vitiating the air with their exhalations and the effluvia of their damp clothing, and thus providing the conditions most favorable to the development of disease germs—a combination of oppressive heat with a damp and stagnant atmosphere.

"Take a pound of clover-seed," says a recipe of the Buckland lectures, "soak it in a gallon of rain-water kept at a temperature of 95°, and vast multitudes of infusoria will develop in a period varying from ten to fifteen hours. But add one drop of a liquid already saturated with animalcula, and the process of development will be accelerated in a portentous and incredible manner: in less than half an hour millions

of wriggling specks will be seen where only a dozen or two could be seen before."

With equal certainty we might guarantee the evolution of lung diseases wherever half a hundred human beings are confined in a damp, ill-ventilated, and overheated room. But introduce one person already afflicted with a well-developed catarrh and the danger of infecting all the rest will be increased a hundred-fold; the microscopes of the future will reveal the result in an atmosphere filled with microbes as a grist-mill with flour-dust, and we might as well inoculate our children with influenza virus as to force them to inhale at every breath a myriad of lung parasites eager to fasten upon a sore spot of the pulmonary tissue. It is true that absolutely sound lungs are for a while microbe-proof, but the period of that immunity is limited, as proved by the fate of woodland apes confined in the stuffy atmosphere of an overheated menagerie. And how many city children are wholly free from inherited or acquired lung disorders? Perhaps five per cent, but more probably hardly five in a thousand. All the rest are more or less directly injured by a dose of microbe air, and in our North American schools, with rare exceptions, that poison is administered six hours a day, for about a hundred days in the year—the martyrdom of swelter heat and closed windows being often kept up long after the end of March.

The street-cars of several New England cities take in more fares during the three winter months than all the rest of the year taken together. Some of their patrons take a ride only in cold weather; their hearts, like persimmons, get softened by frost. They will walk five miles in midsummer to save five cents, and defy spring showers in waterproofs, but the dread of "colds," alias catarrhs, persuades them to enter a crowded catarrh-trap. The females of their species often devote the whole winter to indoor indolence, with such intermezzos as a visit to the next-door neighbors or a walk to the track of the nearest motor line.

And yet they enjoy better appetites in winter than in midsummer—the season of outings and vacation tours, of boat-races

and berry excursions. Every boarding-house keeper knows that in warm weather six out of ten guests merely nibble their food, but try to eat a Christmas dinner every winter day—and that in spite of the fact that many of them pass twenty-three hours of those winter days in an atmosphere of artificial summer.

The explanation can be found in the

redeeming influence of the twenty-fourth hour—the six times ten minutes passed on street-corners, in markets, post-office vestibules, and wood-yards. A few lungs-full of intensely cold fresh air atone for a multitude of hygienic sins, and, unlike the nostrums of medical confidence men, the remedy answers its purpose with or without the confidence of the patient.

THE BUSINESS LETTER.

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER.

A YOUNG man who saw in himself unmistakable indications of genius once submitted an eloquent oration to his professor for criticism, with secret anticipations of admiring commendation. "What do you mean by that?" asked the grim censor, reading one of the most glowing passages. The abashed author proceeded to put the not very obvious meaning into a few plain words. "Then," said the professor, "why not say so?" and drew the merciless pencil through all but the bare statement. Sentence after sentence shared the same fate, the admission, "I meant so-and-so" being always followed by the question, "Then why not say so?"

As a formula for literary composition this can hardly be of universal application, the charm of a great deal of delightful writing being mainly in the author's manner of "saying so," and the enticing fashion in which he leads us on, through little meandering by-paths, to a destination where we should not have cared to arrive by the straight road of the familiar highway. But for the business letter no better council can be given. Be sure you understand what you wish to ask or to tell and then "say so." A vague, wandering, confused business letter is an annoyance no one has a right to inflict upon others. Personal matters and asides that might be of interest to your friends are wholly out of place, as well as apologies and elaborate explanations. If you have not promptly attended to a business letter you are inexcusable, and no

apology can in the least improve the situation, unless it were in the nature of the following response to an invitation: "Mr. McGonigle begs to be excused from dining with Lady Mary to-day, as he was hanged at Old Bailey yesterday," an instance where neglect on the part of the guest seems to have been atoned for by the courtesy of his ghost.

A matter may require deliberation or consultation, but in this case a brief note should at once be sent in acknowledgment, to be followed at the earliest possible day by a suitable letter, recalling the date and subject of the correspondence, and answering any questions in simple, direct fashion. The various aspects of the case, the difficulty you may have experienced in coming to a decision, the peculiar embarrassments of your situation, are of no importance to your correspondent, who wishes to know only your conclusion. It must be confessed that women are special offenders in this respect, but mainly through lack of training. The great majority of womankind, having been educated to think that business affairs pertain wholly to the domain of man, never trouble themselves about details until they find them thrust into their unaccustomed hands, and are bewildered and perplexed by what seems to a man wholly unimportant. The education of women's clubs, and the multiplicity of benevolent and social organizations managed by women, are in a measure supplying the lack, but they are also making evident the need of funda-

mental instruction to the young girl in business ways and methods, that she may not need to learn them later in life, to the annoyance of her associates.

Thin paper, fanciful penmanship, flourishes of all kinds, abbreviations, and pet names have no place in a business correspondence. You may be Kittie or Maggie to your friends and intimates, but in a business letter take to yourself the dignity of Katherine or Margaret. Why a woman who has passed babyhood should ever wish to curtail these queenly names is not easy to understand, but at least she may confine them to the household, and not send them into the market-place. Rev. Tommy Smith and Dr. Jimmy Brown would be greeted with derision; why are Birdie May Jones, attorney-at-law, and Dr. Hattie Belle Brown any less ridiculous?—yet both these names figure among recent graduates of professional schools.

Whatever your signature may be, it must be legible, not only to yourself and friends but to strangers with no clue to your identity. Any other word may be guessed at by its connection, but persons with wide business correspondence are often driven to imitate as nearly as possible the signature of a document, with no idea whether a letter is *n* or *u*, *a* or *o*, *y* or *g*, *e* or *c*. If the street and number are added to the address this does not matter so much, and every business letter should have these particulars, as well as exact date. The first thing one wishes to know is *when* it was written.

Whether you shall address your correspondent as

"Mr. John Brown,

"Secretary Library Association;

"Dear Sir,"

or "My dear Mr. Brown," or "Dear Mr. Brown," depends wholly upon the degree of formality desirable, the first being of course the most ceremonious, the last the least so.

It ought not to be necessary to remind any person of ordinary intelligence to enclose stamps in letters pertaining to her own business. But women have curious ideas of courtesy in such matters; they will insist upon paying car-fare for their friends

(though a man never does it), and yet feel that to enclose a two-cent stamp to a person with whom they have no acquaintance is assuming a degree of littleness on her part that is uncomplimentary. If men are more careful it is simply that they put the stamp inside of the letter, as they do on the outside, to insure attention, having learned by experience that a man must expect justice and not generosity in business.

No business documents carry such a freight of hopes and fears as those that escort on their "little journeys in the world" the precious creations of fancy and imagination that are too often doomed to find no rest on all the waste of waters, but come back soiled and rumpled to the hand that sent them forth. Good advice to young writers appears perennially, but the race is perennial also, and kindly counsel is in no danger of being superfluous. The matter and manner of your contribution to literature are hardly within the scope of this article, but having something to say, having done your best to say it effectively, having reconsidered, revised, rewritten, until you have attained such perfection as may be possible to you, leave it to its own merits and the editor's judgment, with the briefest possible introduction. Theoretically, at least, nothing matters to that autocratic individual but the quality of your work and its adaptation to his special needs.

That you are suddenly compelled to earn your livelihood, that you have been urged by admiring friends to send something for publication, that you have always been fond of literature and that it has been your great ambition to become an author, are facts of no possible interest to the editor, and your statement of them is a heavy presumption against the value of your contribution, since it stamps you at once as a tyro, on whose experiments few editors can afford to waste time.

Write upon your manuscript your full name and address, and put it, with little folding, in a substantial envelope. Say to the editor: "The enclosed manuscript, entitled ———, is offered for publication in your magazine. If not available kindly

return to the following address." This is brief, courteous, and clear. The title of your article is necessary in case letter and manuscript are accidentally separated, and the address should be repeated on the manuscript for the same reason. The enclosure of stamps enough to cover return postage is all that can be added to give any value to your letter, and if your article

comes back you have only to repeat your experiment somewhere else. I think it is the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table who once remarked that if you arranged a load of potatoes ever so carefully the jolting of the market wagon was sure to carry the small ones to the bottom; but even small potatoes have their uses, and if of the right quality are quite sure to find a market.

TRADE AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

BY FLORENCE KELLEY.

OF HULL-HOUSE, CHICAGO.

THE girls who stay in the public schools of Chicago until they are fourteen years of age are well started in the direction of trade and commerce. The only acquirements offered them in which thoroughness enough is attained to confer value for the labor market tend toward the office or the store. The peasant children in the sweat-shops, cigar factories, and candy cellars have dropped out of school at the third, fourth, or, at best, fifth grade. The seventh-grade girls have been, for two years at the end of their course, gaining the commercial arithmetic, clear writing, and somewhat accurate spelling calculated to equip them for employment as time-keepers in the present, and pave the way toward the typewriting and bookkeeping of the future. The connection is very close between the 2,695 little girls in the factories and workshops of Chicago and the stupid curriculum of the secondary grades, and closer still between the curriculum and the 2,000 little girls engaged in commerce. The choice lies virtually between these two openings, on the one hand, and the teaching trade, conceived not at all as a profession, on the other.

It would, perhaps, be not wholly unjust to represent the process as follows: Leave school at or below third grade, enter sweat-shops; leave school at third, fourth, or fifth grade, enter sweat-shops, laundries, stores; leave school at sixth, seventh, or eighth

grade, preparing to be typewriters or teachers.

The grade-schools of Chicago teach the girls virtually nothing which leads in any other directions than these. There is not only no suggestion of any household art or craft or science; there is actual diversion of the attention of the girls from these subjects to others, foreign if not antagonistic to them, and the upper schools do not differ from the lower ones in this respect.

In the nineteenth ward of Chicago, the poorest working-class district in the city, the girls in the seventh grade of the public schools spent, last winter, more time upon commercial arithmetic than upon any other two studies. Their work would have been valuable, perhaps, for bank clerks actually engaged in the business and fitting themselves for positions as cashiers of large institutions. It was strictly technical work, the only technical education offered these daughters of Italian, Polish, Russian, and Bohemian peasant immigrants. Yet, with all this outlay of time, there was not a girl in the class who could have calculated, at the end of the year's work, what per cent of her father's earnings had been spent for fuel, light, food, clothing, and car-fare, respectively, though this is the problem in regard to her own or her husband's wages which will have to be solved in practice every day by every one of these children after they leave school.

Not only is the connection close between

this ill-advised curriculum and the flocking of young girls into commerce and retail trade; it is even closer between the sins of omission of the grade-schools and the bad teeth, nervous exhaustion, and intemperance of our young boys and girls. For girls who learn nothing about food in school, who have no opportunity at home to supplement their school work, and who enter the labor market in their early teens, it is inevitable that their children will be fed beer, coffee, cucumbers, and bananas while cutting their first teeth, as we see working-class children fed to-day, while the older ones are literally driven to drink by the indigestion and starvation which accompany bakers' alum bread, soggy potatoes, and shoe-sole steak fried thin.

It is now eighteen years since the writer watched a class of eleven-year-old girls in a board school in the East End of London cook a substantial meal in their cooking center and carry home the articles which they had cooked, paying enough in pence and half-pence to cover the cost of the materials used. There are to-day two cooking centers in Chicago public schools, but they are carried on by private philanthropy, and there is no serious intention manifest on the part of the board of education of introducing into the schools generally even this most vitally needed branch of education. Yet it is difficult to see why cooking is not far more essential than the knack of calculating bank deposits and the interest thereon, for the hundreds of peasants' daughters who will never be bank clerks or speculators, but will certainly have to cook meals for their husbands and children. As a means of culture *per se*, the calculations of commercial arithmetic cannot be regarded; their only excuse for being in a grade-school curriculum is the crassly utilitarian one that some of the boys in the grade are getting ready to be bookkeepers. Then why not differentiate the work and give some of the time so spent to preparation of the girls for work which certainly awaits them?

The sewing introduced several years ago into the schools, without any preparation

of the teachers for giving instruction in it, seems to have fallen asleep permanently, and there is no perceptible, serious effort to revive it.

The subjects which normally occupy happy women almost to the point of monopolizing their attention are food, clothing, shelter, and the care and nurture of children. But the curriculum of our grade-schools excludes these subjects and substitutes for them the study of words and numbers as adapted to use in retail stores.

The traveler from Mars could scarcely escape the inference, if he knew our life only through our schools, that this is the last generation of our race; for there is no preparation in them for the life of the race in the future. Cooking, sewing, designing garments, furniture, or houses, hygiene in practical relation to food, clothing, ventilation, or the care and cleanliness and rest of little children—is there any grade-school which deals effectively with any of these matters, without which the race could not complete the first quarter of the incoming century?

Hygiene, it is true, is taught out of a book, to the relatively small number of children who persist unto the second half-year of the seventh grade; but this is a small minority of the children and the teaching is far from vital or immediately valuable.

Little girls in the primary grades could perfectly well be interested in their clothing—in the questions why dark clothing is more serviceable than white; why woollens are more wholesome for people who are doing hard bodily work than cottons; why cleanliness is needful for the health of the skin, especially in the case of babies and little children. In the fifth grade the children are already old enough to understand and take a keen interest in the simple principles of laundry work or even of dyeing; and their arithmetic might well concern itself with the cost of foods, the length of time that a garment may be expected to wear as a factor in determining the relative prices of goods, the cost of daily chewing gum and cigarettes compared with the cost

of books bought at regular intervals, or of annual trips to suburbs and parks.

There is the more reason for adjusting the teaching in the fourth and fifth grades to the immediate ignorance of the children, because sixty-eight per cent of them go no farther than the fifth grade, as the superintendent of schools, Mr. Albert Lane, points out year after year in his reports. But we have no teachers and no plant for any such technical work as the children would be adequate to. Our schools are not only not equipped to enrich and beautify the day, as it passes, for the children; they are not even preparing them for the inevitable experiences of the next following years.

The fact that the technical subjects referred to as suitable for young girls are to-day repulsive rather than attractive to them is a severe indictment of the work done in the schools; for, rightly taught, these subjects are more absorbingly interesting than any others to young girls.

Never before was so much money available for purposes of public education. Never was the public interest so deep and widespread, and never was the lamentable failure of the schools to give the girls those aptitudes which they urgently need so flagrant, as in the great foreign colonies in the manufacturing and commercial centers, where little girls are directly stimulated by their school work to enter lines of occupation from which men are most ruinously crowded out, while negatively the children are discouraged by their lack of training

from entering fields of activity in which trained ability is more conspicuously lacking in America to-day than in any other civilized country.

It seems hardly credible that all this is accidental; it almost seems as though there must be an intention, on the part of the business men to whom the schools are entrusted, to stock the market permanently with cheap heads for commercial purposes, as it is stocked to-day with cheap hands for the lower forms of unskilled labor—so far is the curriculum from assuring to the children any real efficiency of hands or minds.

All the opportunities for manual training and technical education which are really comprehensive enough to be of value are offered to older students. The Armour schools presuppose, as do the business colleges, the kindergarten training schools, and schools for nurses, the completion of the secondary education before the pupil enters the course of technical work. Yet whatever technical education is to be secured to the mass of working-class children must be provided for the years from ten to sixteen. In these years all those things which are fundamentally necessary to train girls to be intelligent as mothers and housekeepers can be made pedagogically valuable when the conscience of the teaching sisterhood is awakened to the present sins of omission. To do this we need practical women on school boards and teachers in our grade-schools who are intelligent, well-bred, and well-trained to a degree far beyond our present standards.

TEARS.

BY F. E. MEDICUS.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

"UNCLE, you are terrible. Of course you don't know how much good a shower of tears can do."

"A shower of tears? No, absolutely not. I haven't even preserved a recollection of it from my childhood. The only thing I know from that golden age is that tears

taste salty. Salt water—nothing but salt water; isn't that so, doctor?"

"And one tenth of one per cent albumen and other trifles."

"There, Elsie, you see all there is in your magic tears."

"No, brother, you are really too material-

istic," now put in the worthy Miss Eulalie, a little vexed. "The ability to weep is the exclusive privilege of man, and I believe the kind Creator would not have bestowed it upon the crown of creation if he had not——"

"I beg your pardon, young lady, Providence has also bestowed it upon my blooded mare. Not long ago when she had caught cold——"

"That is not weeping though. Animals never weep."

"What, animals never weep? Oh!"

"Animals never weep—the young lady is right; for the occasional gushing out of a few tears from the irritation of the eye can hardly be called weeping. Darwin certainly believed that elephants and a few kinds of apes are an exception; but this appears not to be verified. Besides, little children do not weep either—I mean very little children. Until the age of about one hundred days they do not really shed a tear—not even when they are screaming as if they were being cut in pieces."

"Then they ought not to get accustomed to it later."

"They would probably die, or at least become extremely nervous," quietly observed the judge.

"Gracious! the affair is getting serious. Well, doctor, just tell us; you are a specialist in such matters, you know. How is it about weeping? What does it come from? What good is it?"

"I am sorry I cannot give a satisfactory answer. In the medical lectures we don't learn that sort of thing. When a child weeps, of course it is healthy for it, and so it does not concern the doctor. Yet I happen to be somewhat informed on Darwin's idea of the matter. He has written a peculiar book about the expression of the emotions—nice and easy to read. There are pictures in it too, to illustrate his idea."

"Go on, we are very curious to hear."

"I am sorry to disappoint you. His explanation of weeping probably does not belong to the strongest things that Darwin has produced. He tries to explain it thus: If a child feels pain, say hunger or the

effect of a carelessly placed pin, it cries out, naturally; or, if we are not satisfied with this 'naturally,' it cries either because every external exertion turns away the attention from the feeling of pain, and therefore is a relief, or because the habit of calling for help in distress is so firmly rooted in preceding generations that even the unconscious child brings the impulse of it along into the world. Continuous screaming, however, unavoidably causes an overfilling of the blood-vessels of the eye; at the same time the muscles which surround the eye are involuntarily contracted, as may be seen externally by the wrinkles in the face.

"Through this double pressure the tear-glands are so irritated that they secrete tears more abundantly than usual. More abundantly than usual, I say, for a gentle cascade of tears trickles continually over the eyeballs in order to facilitate the movement of the eyelids and at the same time to remove penetrating dust. This liquid under ordinary circumstances does not get beyond the lower edge of the eye, as it is dammed back by a little fatty pillow, but it trickles continually through little channels which lead from the lower corner of the eye to the nose. But if in consequence of the before-mentioned irritation of the tear-glands an unusual flow takes place, then the little channels are no longer able to contain the quantity, the little dams overflow, a thick tear tumbles over the protecting edge, and then—well, ladies and gentlemen, you know what happens."

"Splendid! But you said before, doctor, that animals never weep. Are not their muscles contracted, or haven't they any muscles at all around their eyes?"

"My good woman, you have touched the weak point of Darwin's theory. But I know of none better; perhaps our psychologist knows."

"Of course, just because I am a psychologist, and not a materialistic doctor!" said the judge, defending himself against the gentle ridicule.

"Well, go on then," commanded Uncle Augustus, "but don't talk too learnedly; give us your names. I like the concrete.

The doctor mentioned Darwin. I know about him: he was the man with the apes. Well, what have you to say?"

"I have nothing to say, really, in explanation of weeping, but only of its right place in the order of psycho-physical procedures."

"Ahem!" said the doctor, clearing his throat.

The judge went calmly on.

"The most usual and certain cause of tears is intellectual pain—sorrowful ideas accompanied by gloomy feelings. Bodily pain makes us weep only when it is excessive and shakes the whole nervous system in such a way that the tear-glands are reflexively stimulated. But the tears that accompany bodily pain might also be understood as a consequence of emotions that take place at the same time, such as anxiety, fear, etc. Accordingly we must take as our point of departure excitement of the feelings. All the stronger excitements of the soul are accompanied by movements of the body, to which psychology gives the name 'movements of expression.' Now it is a fact known to all that purely intellectual impressions are often so similar to those called forth by bodily sensations as to be confused with them. So, for example, the feeling which we have under the weight of heavy, depressing circumstances is approximately similar to that called forth by a material burden, really heavy in a literal sense. Under certain circumstances, also, we react physically upon our intellectual impressions exactly in the same manner as upon irritations which touch our bodies from without; in other words, emotions of the soul are easily accompanied by the same involuntary movements as would follow if an external irritation aroused a similar feeling."

"Very plausible; but why do we have tears?"

"The doctor has already mentioned that the tears which in a small quantity trickle continually over the eye increase when it is necessary to remove from the eye a little insect or small body that has forced its way in. Tears are therefore called forth reflexively through an irritation that is painful to the eye. Now, unquestionably, the sight of

an event that causes us purely physical pain is accompanied by a feeling very similar to the one which arises when a material disturbance gets into the eye. It is therefore only an application of what has been previously said when I observe that a sight painful to the soul has the same effect upon the nerve leading to the tear-gland as an external irritation which produces the same feeling."

"The theory has perhaps something in its favor," observed the doctor slowly.

"Let me add one thing more. The other expressive movements that accompany weeping bear the same character of original reaction against the impressions on the organs of sense. The mouth is stretched as it is from the irritation of bitter taste, the eyelids are sunken as if they wished to ward off an irritating light, and under the influence of oppressive feelings expulsions of breath follow from time to time, called sobs. This, too, is a peculiarity of man."

"Do stop!" exclaimed Uncle Augustus, "or from your vivid description we shall really begin to weep."

"And yet, judge, in this roundabout way you can hardly come to an explanation of weeping in little children. An infant a half-year old has neither ideas, nor thoughts, nor ——"

"No, but if in many generations tears are produced in this way, then the psycho-physical connection between pain and weeping finally becomes so fixed that the disposition to it is born in every new inhabitant of the earth."

"That is correct," asserted the doctor. "But how do you explain the fact that little children do not weep until they are three months old?"

"I cannot explain it. I believe the explanation belongs more to your domain than to mine, for I presume that the development of tear-glands is so slow that in the first months of life no extraordinary secretion of tears is possible. Yet, as I said, I only presume so. I am not a physiologist."

"And yet your supposition might be right," said the doctor. "Your theory has at least this in its favor, that it offers a

reason for the difference in regard to weeping which exists between man and beast; for if weeping is explained by ideas and the movements of the feelings connected therewith, then no wonder that the brutes, whose inner life has not in the remotest degree the depth and clearness of the intellectual life of man, never weep."

"Why, the thing is really interesting! But go on to the end," spoke up Uncle Augustus. "What is that you were saying about the good done by a shower of tears? Can you justify that too by science?"

"All expressive movements serve in a certain degree for the liberation of a psychic tension. You know, uncle, when you are sometimes so very angry——"

"I am never angry."

"And you strike with all your might on the table——"

"You are right, that does me good."

"It is unquestionably better for your nerves——"

"I haven't any nerves."

"Than if you had to swallow your wrath

in silence; and it is also psycho-physiologically explainable that in this you are just as correct as we in our assertion about weeping. Tears are a liberation for depressed feeling. Every intense excitement of feeling has connected with it an intense movement of the nerves."

"Well, well!" said Uncle Augustus.

"With the less violent but still strong excitements, the activity which the nerves find through their expressive movements as well as through the irritation of the tear-glands is a wholesome liberation; and, still farther, the process of weeping itself, which is again accompanied by particular feelings, as every bodily proceeding is, may react upon the movement of the feelings, calling forth thought, soothing associations, etc. The nervous system and the feelings find their equilibrium again in weeping to the heart's content."

"Well, great heav— I beg your pardon; I mean I am not inhuman either. Cry, then, as much as you wish. May it do you good!"

THE SUMMIT.

BY EMMA E. VOLENTINE.

HAS one, then, reached the summit of the hill,
When life has been half told? Do there remain
No farther heights to seek, no crest to gain,
While, journeying, upward we are looking still?
Shall never more be felt ambition's thrill,
Nor voice of earthly hope be heard again?
When feet have learned to walk, and bear the pain,
Must they no more in climbing show their skill?
It is not so! There is no other side
The hill of life; there is no downward slope
That reaches to the grave. The whole long way
Goes up and on, and, let what may betide,
The heart unto the end is cheered by hope—
The end, at which begins consummate day.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

GREATER NEW YORK'S FIRST MAYOR ELECTED.

AN element of tragedy was introduced into the New York mayoralty campaign by the death four days before election of Henry George,† the candidate of the Jeffersonian Democracy. Although Henry George, Jr., was immediately substituted for his father as the candidate of the party, the ranks broken by the death of the leader could not be rallied and their demoralization materially influenced the outcome of the contest. The election November 2 resulted in the complete triumph of the regular or Tammany Democracy, with a plurality for Van Wyck as mayor of 80,103. The entire vote for the four prominent candidates was about as follows: Van Wyck, Tammany, 228,688; Low, Citizens' Union, 148,585; Tracy, Republican, 101,571; George, Jeffersonian Democracy, 19,864.



ROBERT A. VAN WYCK.
Greater New York's First Mayor.

(Tracy Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

The triumph of Tammany on Tuesday was the consequence of the folly of the conservative forces which last year carried the Greater New York by a majority of about 60,000. When obviously the only way of beating the hordes of Bryanism was to keep together the social and political elements which last year stood solidly for Mr. McKinley, they split apart under the impulse of a hysterical mania for an intellectual bauble.

(Low Rep.) *The Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

Above the cruel wreck of the Republican machine by its own chief engineer, one fact stands triumphant. It is that the people have discarded the doctrine, new and strange to Republican polity, that national and state affairs have anything to do with a municipal election.

(Low Ind.) *The Evening Post.* (New York, N. Y.)

The one ray of light in the situation is the Low

vote of 150,000. This is a magnificent beginning for a wholly new system of nominating and canvassing, considering the obstacles of every kind against which the movement had to contend.

(Tammany Dem.) *The Journal.* (New York, N. Y.)

The people have voted for Democracy, but not for "Crokerism." They have voted against sham reform, but not against true reform. They are as anxious for good government, with all that implies, as the most superior member of the Citizens' Union.

(Low Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

These machine conspirators, proclaiming themselves the special champions and defenders of sound money, carried on a desperate and successful battle to prevent that victory and put in power the free silverites, whom they pretended to fear. And now to avoid the responsibility for that crime against New York they sneak off whining that they are the victims of their deep devotion to sound money and McKinley.

(Ind.) *The Washington Post.* (D. C.)

It remains to be seen whether Tammany will answer the popular expectation—abolish the régime of the busybodies and restore the dispensation of self-respect and freedom. We believe it will. Fanaticism has had its day, and the sun of liberty is rising. New York has had enough of humbug. Tammany will be wise to consider New York's dignity and happiness.

(Dem.) *The Argus.* (Albany, N. Y.)

For four years to come Democrats will control the metropolis of America. It means majority rule. It means an end to sham reform, a beginning of real reform in the interests of the people.

(Rep.) *The Philadelphia Inquirer.* (Pa.)

Any fool might have known that hope of victory against Tammany lay in a unity of purpose, and that the campaign must center upon the Republican organization. But Mr. Low's friends intended to rule or ruin—and they have ruined.

Pall Mall Gazette. (London, England)

Such an organization as Tammany could not

* This department, together with the book "The Social Spirit in America," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

† See page 322 of this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

exist in London. A man or an organization once proved guilty of corruption could never return to power. Tammany, under the leadership of Croker, has done so in a manner which must afford food for serious thought, even in a city so accustomed to bad government as New York.

Tageblatt. (Berlin, Germany.)

The victory in Greater New York will have a

sinister effect throughout the nation, for it means that the awakening desire for municipal reform has received a terrific set-back.

Journal des Debats. (Paris, France.)

Once again is displayed the incapacity of honest citizens of New York to organize and shake off the dominion of the political intriguers who exploit and dishonor municipal politics.

CHARLES A. DANA.*

THE death of Charles Anderson Dana, editor of the *New York Sun*, which occurred at his home near Glencove, L. I., October 17, has removed one of the foremost figures of American journalism. Charles A. Dana was born in Hinsdale, N. H., August 8, 1819. He early determined to have a good education, and while working as a clerk in a store in Buffalo fitted himself for college. He entered Harvard University without a condition in 1839 and remained there two years, obtaining the necessary funds by teaching in summer and borrowing money secured by an insurance on his life. Obligated by weak eyes to leave college at the end of his sophomore year, he joined the Brook Farm community at Roxbury, Mass., and here did his first newspaper work as a writer for *The Harbinger*, the organ of the society. Dana's next step was to become assistant editor of the *Boston Chronotype*. He continued this work until 1847, when he obtained employment under Horace Greeley as city editor of the *New York Tribune*. Two years later he became managing editor of the *Tribune*, and held this position for ten years. Early in the war Mr. Dana was made assistant secretary of war by President Lincoln and in this capacity was sent to the front, where he rendered the government valuable service in reporting upon the condition of affairs at important points. His ability to read character stood him in good stead in this work. In 1865 he went back to journalism as editor of *The Chicago Republican*, but this paper soon became involved in financial difficulties and Mr. Dana returned to New York and organized a company for the purchase of the *New York Sun*. He took possession of *The Sun* in 1868 and continued its editor until his death. As editor of this paper he for many years supported the Democratic party, but in the presidential campaign of 1884 advocated the election of General Butler and in 1896 declared for the Republican candidate. His son, Paul Dana, has for a number of years been associated with him in his editorial work.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The world of newspapers loses a man who had a distinct and an elevated conception of their legitimate function in modern civilization, which he fulfilled with patience, diligence, originality, and an exhaustive knowledge of detail. The world of letters loses a choice critic, an erudite scholar, and a master of English style. The world of politics loses a fighter equipped with economic learning and the practical experience gained by intimate contact with the greatest figures of an active generation.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

It must always be a matter of profound regret to the admirers of this exceptionally gifted man that he was so much the prey of his own intense and ineradicable prejudices. That he had a clear and lucid mind his writings show. His weakness lay in his disability to rid himself of the handicap of his own violent and unreasonable likes and dislikes.

Cincinnati Commercial Gazette. (O.)

The three traits of character which especially distinguished the dead editor were his optimistic spirit, his uncompromising hatred of and hostility

to all deceit, dishonesty, and sophistry, and his love of country.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

A man of keen intelligence, broad information, a wide acquaintance with public men, having fixed political principles and the ability to give clear and forcible expression to his views, he was an exceptionally able editorial writer.

The Washington Post. (D. C.)

Whatever Mr. Dana thought he uttered with surpassing eloquence and clearness. Right or wrong, mistaken or informed, just or unjust, generous or vengeful, philanthropic or malevolent, he was at all times frank, outspoken, and commanding. No one can say of him that he was faint-hearted in his animosities or a laggard in his loves. Whatever else he may have been, he was not that poor and unconsidered thing, a negative.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The last survivor of a school of journalists that produced many notable men, he was in some respects the ablest of them all, as he certainly was the most erudite and cosmopolitan. His death is as great a loss to American journalism as the death of Lowell was to American literature.

* For portrait of Mr. Dana see frontispiece of this number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

A RECIPROCITY COMMISSION APPOINTED.



JOHN A. KASSON.
The New Reciprocity Commissioner.

IN order that the clauses of the Dingley Tariff Act relating to reciprocity may be carried out, President McKinley, on October 14, designated John A. Kasson of Iowa a special commissioner with plenary powers to put their provisions into effect. The commissioner is charged particularly to look after the agricultural interests of both North and South and not to forget the manufacturing interests east of the Alleghanies. Mr. Kasson brings to the new position considerable experience in diplomatic negotiations. He was minister to Austria from 1877 to 1881 and minister to Germany from July 4, 1884, to March, 1885. While at the Austrian capital he acted as the representative of Nicaragua in a dispute between that country and Great Britain, of which the emperor of Austria was arbitrator, and when stationed at Berlin served as American delegate to the Congo Conference. In 1889 he was again sent to Berlin, this time as special envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary representing the United States at the conference concerning Samoan affairs. Preceding his diplomatic service, Mr. Kasson was for many years a member of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives and thus became familiar with the different aspects of the tariff question. He has chosen as his secretary Mr. Chapman Coleman of Kentucky, who was for a number of years secretary of the United States embassy at Berlin. Mr. John Ball Osborne of Pennsylvania will act as assistant secretary. The commission has been assigned suitable quarters in the Department of State in Washington. France is the first country to invite a conference, and Mr. Patenotre, the French ambassador to the United States, is already negotiating for a treaty of reciprocity between the two countries.

The Milwaukee Sentinel. (Wis.)

The president has acted wisely in making special provision for the more prompt execution of the Republican reciprocity policy and he has shown excellent judgment in his selection of the men to whom this work is entrusted.

The Ledger. (Tacoma, Wash.)

That those sections of the law are to be given early attention by a commission headed by a gentleman so eminently fitted for the position as is Mr. Kasson gives promise of beneficial results for the industries of this country.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The gentleman [Mr. Kasson] is an old-fashioned

high tariff advocate, the failure of the practical plans of which class of protectionists was recognized by the whole Republican party when the late Mr. Blaine proclaimed the policy of reciprocity. The president and Mr. Kasson are of the same school, and it will be instructive to watch their progress with the application of the theories of Mr. Blaine.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The French government is desirous of reciprocal trade relations with the United States. Other countries are eager for similar arrangements, and the amount of labor which the various negotiations will require abundantly justifies the president's action in appointing a special commissioner to direct the work.

THE YELLOW FEVER PLAGUE.

THROUGH the month of October the yellow fever epidemic gave little sign of abatement. It gradually spread east as far as Montgomery, Ala., west as far as Houston, Tex., and north as far as Memphis, Tenn. It also took on a somewhat malignant form in the island of Jamaica. In the United States both the number of cases and the rate of mortality have been exceptionally low. Up to November 5 New Orleans, the center of the plague, had had 223 deaths, while in 1867 they numbered 1,072 for the month of October alone. The appearance of frost early in November raised hopes that the disease would soon be checked and the quarantine regulations were in many places entirely or partially suspended. The injury done to trade and travel by the strict rules enforced has caused considerable discussion of the desirability of national quarantine regulations.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

Of all the efforts which have been made to discount the value of life in the Southern States, the

most senseless has been the wild and indiscriminate quarantines which have been declared in various parts of the country.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

Whether or not the sanitary condition of southern cities is responsible for the outbreak of yellow fever, it is a deplorable fact that the South has been debarred in large measure from participation in the prosperity which has overspread the rest of the country. Trade cannot flourish under the shadow of a deadly epidemic. The afflicted section should have the generous sympathy of more fortunate communities.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

That a well-organized and liberally equipped federal service would close most of the gaps through which the epidemics of the past have found an entrance to our ports will not be disputed.

New Orleans Picayune. (La.)

The greed and covetousness of human nature and the keen competitions of business at the different ports operate against the completeness and thoroughness of the measures taken for the general safety.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The need of uniformity in quarantine regulations

is imperative. The old, conflicting state systems are grossly inadequate to prevent the advance of epidemic disease, and besides that they often actually expose whole neighborhoods to the danger of infection.

Florida Times-Union and Citizen. (Jacksonville.)

No man sitting at Washington, no matter how able an administrator, can protect the health of these states so well as they can protect it themselves, if they will only follow the example of Florida and put in the hands of the right men the power they need—the power without which the national quarantine board would itself be useless.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

As to the power of the general government to protect the country from invasion by disease, that rests on the same broad ground that does the power to repel a foreign navy or army from ravaging the coasts and carrying fire and sword into the interior. It is mere childish political sentimentality that quarrels with these propositions. They are founded in both reason and law, and buttressed by common sense.

THE STATE ELECTIONS.

NOTWITHSTANDING this was what is known in politics as an "off year," the contests which terminated in the election of November 2 were in many states sharp, and their results of national importance. This was especially the case in Ohio and Maryland, where legislatures were to be chosen that will elect United States senators. Ohio was also to make choice of a governor. The vote in that state resulted in the reelection of the Republican governor, Asa S. Bushnell, and a Republican assembly, but reduced the Republican majority in the assembly from eighty-five to about five. Maryland also returned a Republican assembly with a diminished majority. The election of Republican assemblies in both these states makes sure the choice of Republican United States senators to succeed Senators Hanna (Rep.) and Gorman (Dem.), whose terms expire in 1899. Kentucky went back to Democratic rule by a plurality of about 25,000. The Silver Democrats will control the legislature with about twenty majority. In the state of New York, as in the city, the Tammany Democracy profited by the division in the Republican party. Alton B. Parker, the Democratic candidate for chief judge of the court of appeals, was elected by a plurality of about 50,000. The Republicans retain control of the assembly by a bare majority. Pennsylvania went Republican as usual, the Republican candidates for state treasurer and auditor-general having about 120,000 plurality. New Jersey still retains a Republican majority in the legislature. Massachusetts elected the Republican state ticket with Roger Wolcott as governor by about 85,000 plurality. Virginia elected an almost straight Democratic ticket. The fusion ticket carried Nebraska. In Iowa the Republicans elected a governor, but lost ground in both houses of the legislature. The Republicans claim six of the eight circuit court judges elected in South Dakota.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

A political reaction on the year following the inauguration of a new national administration is usual. Enough happened Tuesday to show the Republicans that they will have to struggle hard in 1898 to retain possession of the House of Representatives.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The main fact is that, except in the few states which have United States senators to elect soon, the voting this year did nothing to shape the next

Congress. Congressmen will not be elected until next year, and then national issues will indeed test the opinion of voters. It is safe to say that, with continuing prosperity, Republican principles will again command majorities in many congressional districts in which on altogether different questions the majority this year has been adverse.

(Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Everywhere throughout the country the weakest places in the Republican line were those where bossism has ruled most arrogantly. Elsewhere the

party did surprisingly well for an off year. Wherever the personal element was eliminated the Republicans held their own. This was notably true in Massachusetts and in Iowa. Everywhere the McKinley administration was an element of strength.

(*Rep.*) *Ohio State Journal.* (Columbus.)

Ohio has not done her duty toward the national administration, but there is nothing for the Republicans to do but to pick their flints and try again.

(*Dem.*) *The Enquirer.* (Cincinnati, O.)

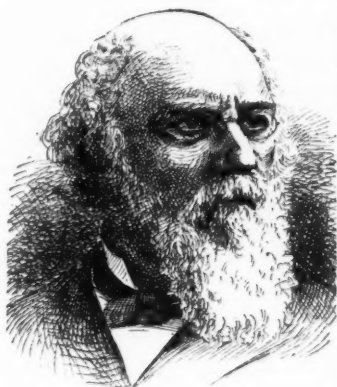
Forty thousand more votes were cast [in Ohio] for Democratic candidates for the legislature than for Republican candidates for the same offices. This is a direct test of the strength of the Democracy in the face of the opposition of the entire national administration, with its power through patronage and official influence and the aggregated wealth and interests which supported Mr. Hanna.

These results may be claimed by Mr. Hanna and his friends as a victory, but another such victory would be worse than two defeats.

(*Ind.*) *Providence Journal.* (R. I.)

The Democrats won, hands down, in Virginia, a fact which will cause conflicting emotions among the Republicans of that state. One Republican faction, it will be recalled, insisted that a state ticket ought to be nominated to keep the party together, and the other declared it foolish to fight the dominant organization in an off year. Now that the Republican candidate for governor has polled a small vote, the do-nothing faction is sure to regard itself as justified, while the members of the party who believed that an aggressive campaign ought to be made will be bitter against those who refused to cast their ballots. Thus a breach has been made that will take long in healing.

ASSOCIATE JUSTICE STEPHEN J. FIELD RETIRES.



JUSTICE STEPHEN J. FIELD.

ON December 1 the Supreme Court of the United States will lose its oldest member in the person of Associate Justice Stephen J. Field, whose resignation was made public October 14. Justice Field in the announcement of his resignation to his associates of the Supreme Court presents an interesting sketch of his career. From this we gather the following facts: His judicial life covers many years of service. He was for five years and a half a member of the Supreme Court of California and was chief justice of that body when appointed to the Supreme Court of the United States by Abraham Lincoln in 1863. The United States Supreme Court was enlarged in that year to admit a representative of the Pacific Coast who would be familiar with the conflicting titles and the mining laws of that section. Chief Justice Taney was at the head of the court when Justice Field took his seat upon the bench, and among the associate justices was Justice Wayne, who had sat with Chief Justice Marshall. Since Justice Field's appointment three chief justices and sixteen associates have passed away. When his resignation goes into effect he will have held office longer than any predecessor on

the Supreme Bench. During his term of office he has written 620 opinions and during his entire legal service has voiced the decision in 1,042 cases. Justice Field is eighty-one years of age. He will receive the full salary of an associate justice—\$10,000 a year—for the remainder of his life.

The Evening Post. (Chicago, Ill.)

Stephen J. Field is and always has been a Democrat, and yet he was appointed to the Supreme Court by the first Republican president. From the day he ascended the bench, more than a third of a century ago, down to the present time, the influence of his strong, active, and powerful intellect is traceable in all the proceedings of the highest tribunal of the land.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

He is a man of ability and firmness, but has never been remarkably popular, nor have his decisions as a judge been allowed to pass without criticism; but it is generally acknowledged that he is honest, and

whatever errors he may have made have grown out of his strong prejudices. He will carry into his retirement warm testimonials of respect from the president and from his associates on the bench.

The Journal. (New York, N. Y.)

Unfortunately the public is not likely to be the gainer by this venerable jurist's retirement. On matters in which corporate interests have not been opposed to those of the public, Justice Field has illuminated the bench by his brilliant and penetrating intellect and his profound learning.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The selection of Attorney-General McKenna as his successor is now generally expected, especially

as he comes from Justice Field's judicial circuit. He has had considerable experience upon the bench and would doubtless make a creditable record in the Supreme Court, though there is no reason to suppose he would add much luster to it.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

Independence in thought and action, with intellectual and moral fearlessness, have characterized Justice Field's course on the grave and important

questions that have come before the court. Profoundly learned in the law, he has been no blind follower of precedent, but his mind has been open to advanced ideas and able broadly to grasp the new facts and conditions of modern social and political life. Both from the length of his term and ability of service, Justice Field will always hold an honored and enduring place among the great jurists who have adorned that greatest of American courts.

THE UNION PACIFIC RAILROAD FORECLOSED.

THE sale at auction by the United States government of the main line of the Union Pacific Railroad was finally consummated at Omaha, Neb. November 1. The property was sold to the Reorganization Committee of the road, the only bidders, for \$53,528,532.76, of which \$39,883,281.87 is for the railroad property itself and \$13,645,250.89 for the bonds held in the sinking fund. In addition to these bonds the sinking fund holds about \$4,500,000 cash which reverts to the government, making the total amount to be received for the property about \$58,000,000. This sum equals the entire amount of both principal and interest due to the government for money advanced for the main line of the road. There is, however, a debt of something over \$12,000,000 still due for loans made to the Kansas Pacific branch of the Union Pacific. This branch is now advertised to be sold December 15. The negotiations for the sale of the Union Pacific began during Mr. Cleveland's administration. Last January the Reorganization syndicate agreed, in case of a sale, to put in a bid of not less than \$45,754,000 for both the main line and Kansas Pacific division, including the sinking fund. During the present administration the bid guaranteed was raised to about \$50,000,000 and later to about \$58,000,000 for the main line alone.

(Rep.) The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

A great many people hold an exaggerated idea of the amount the government has invested in the Union Pacific. The lien of the government is upon that portion of the system extending from Council Bluffs to Ogden and from Kansas City to a short distance east of the west boundary of Kansas.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Taken all in all, the arrangement by which the government's claim on the main line is satisfied in full is a desirable one and is creditable to the administration. The sale of a part of the Kansas Pacific, it is feared, will not result so satisfactorily.

(Rep.) Cincinnati Commercial Gazette. (O.)

The present administration has saved the country \$12,272,339 on the main line of the Union Pacific alone, and Attorney-General McKenna now announces that every dollar put into the road, in all its branches, will be realized by the approaching sales of the line in November and December. This magnificent result will stand as one of the most signal and splendid achievements of the present Republican administration.

(Dem.) Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

By a corrupt and collusive agreement the only property which is worth enough to pay the whole debt is to be sold for a part only of that debt. The administration gives away the government's opportunity to make the whole of the property pay the whole of the debt.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

The syndicate has been forced to raise its bid to

the full claim of the government on the Union Pacific Road, but the allied claim on the Kansas Pacific may be placed in such a condition as to diminish the advantage apparently obtained by the government at present.

(Ind.) Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The general idea regarding the actual transfer of the liens is that the country is well rid of them even at an inadequate price. The most savage critics of the sales cannot blind themselves to the fact that the government has a second mortgage only on the roads. It might fare worse than it is going to if the holders of the first mortgage and prior liens were to prosecute their claims without consideration.

(Rep.) Denver Republican. (Col.)

The deal is regarded as so profitable to the purchasers that the stock of the Union Pacific, which carries a heavy assessment, has been rising very rapidly in the market of late, and is now worth more than three times what it was quoted at a year ago.

(Ind. Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

It now remains to sell the Kansas Pacific division, and in order to pay the entire debt due the government on that division it must bring \$12,000,000. This is much more than it is worth to the new owners of the main line, and it is contended that they are not obliged to buy it at all, since their agreement to do so, made last January, has been broken by the government. Whether, nevertheless, they will feel bound in honor to protect the holders of the mortgages on the property is a matter for them to decide.

SPAIN'S ATTITUDE TOWARD CUBA AND THE UNITED STATES.



MARSHAL RAMON BLANCO.
The New Captain-General of Cuba.

The Liberal ministry of Spain upon its accession to power did not delay action. Marshal Ramon Blanco was immediately appointed to succeed General Weyler as captain-general of Cuba and reached the island October 30. The government announced its purpose to grant autonomy to Cuba at once and to push the war to a speedy end. It also declared amnesty to many political prisoners. Spain's reply to Minister Woodford's note from the United States government was received in Washington October 27. An outline of it reported to be semi-official declares that Spain goes into details concerning the filibustering expeditions said to have left the United States for Cuba and expresses the hope that the United States will try to "prevent further violations of international law." Replying to the offer of mediation, Spain hopes the United States will act loyally and correctly in helping Spain to pacify Cuba, especially as autonomy is to be given the Cubans. In the meantime encounters between insurgents and Spaniards in Havana province continue to be reported and a proclamation purporting to be signed by President Capote of the Cuban Republic and countersigned by Generals Gomez and Garcia is circulated in Havana, which declares that the Cubans will not accept autonomy even in the most liberal form. The sensational event of the month has been the rescue of the Cuban girl Señorita Evangelina Cosío y Cisneros from a Spanish prison by the aid of the *New York Journal*.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The appointment of Gen. Ramon Blanco as Weyler's successor in Cuba will be interpreted as heralding the abandonment of the needless brutalities that have made Weyler's name notorious.

Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

General Blanco is likely to find himself as cordially hated in a few weeks as Weyler is. War is war, and Blanco cannot induce the revolutionists to quit by shooting over their heads or issuing amiable proclamations to them. What they are out for is independence.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

The recall of Weyler and the appointment of Blanco is no doubt a concession to American public sentiment, but it is not enough. The only concession that will satisfy public sentiment in this country will be the unconditional independence of Cuba.

The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

It is quite likely that the offer of home rule for Cuba will be made by the new Spanish Liberal ministry in good faith, but there is little reason to believe it will be accepted.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

What is the use of giving the rebels what they declare they will not accept? The time for autonomy, even of the most favorable kind, seems to be past in Cuba, and Sagasta's offer does not embrace autonomy of that character.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

If similar concessions had been made by the British Parliament to the American revolutionary

patriots at any time before independence had been in fact achieved by them the thirteen colonies might never have severed their connection with the mother country. It can scarcely be claimed by the most partial friend of the Cuban insurgents that they are within measurable distance of the achievement of their independence of Spain.

The Evening Star. (Washington, D. C.)

It is of the greatest and most pressing moment that the war in Cuba should be stopped, but it is also of the greatest moment that it be stopped in a way to insure against a reopening of it. Would anything short of independence for Cuba accomplish that end?

Denver Republican. (Col.)

If Spain can satisfy the Cubans without granting them absolute independence, it should be permitted by the Americans to do so. While Americans might look upon that as an unsatisfactory end to the struggle, they would have no right to interfere and compel Spain to grant independence if the Cubans themselves did not demand it. The rights of Spain must be recognized by the United States as a neutral power.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The interests of Spain, as well as of Cuba and of humanity, require that the new ministry and its new policy shall have a fair and sympathetic trial.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

There have been all sorts of guesses as to what the note [of Spain to the United States] contains, but nobody pretends to be accurate. It is more

than probable that it is a very temperate, high-toned, and dignified document, and that it will not lead to any trouble between Spain and the United States.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The real blame for whatever successful filibustering has been done rests not with the United States, but with Spain. If she had maintained around the coasts of Cuba a patrol half as effective as that which we have exercised along our extended coast, filibustering vessels would not so easily have

landed their cargoes. It is unreasonable in Spain to expect to have all her police work done for her by a neighboring power.

The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

It is not our business to patrol the coast of Cuba to intercept filibusters. That is the business of Spain. If she cannot establish a patrol that will prevent filibusters from landing, how does she expect us to prevent them from departing from some point along a still more extended coast-line? The whole demand is absurd.

HENRY GEORGE.



HENRY GEORGE.

HENRY GEORGE, candidate of the Jeffersonian Democracy for mayor of New York, died at the Union Square Hotel in that city on October 29, of apoplexy brought on, presumably, by his exertions in the campaign. His death, occurring as it did in the closing days of the campaign, threw a new element of uncertainty into the contest and probably had considerable influence on the result. Mr. George is best known as the exponent of the single tax idea—the theory that all revenues should be raised by taxes on land. This doctrine he advocated in "Progress and Poverty" (1880), "The Land Question" (1883), and other books, in speeches delivered in this country and in England, Scotland, Ireland, and Australia, and in his single tax paper, the *Standard*, published in New York. He was also an ardent free-trader, supporting his views in a work, "Protection or Free Trade" (1886). He published a work on "Social Problems" in 1884, and just before his recent nomination for the mayoralty he finished a book on political economy. Mr. George was preeminently a self-made man; he worked his way up

through the different stages of office-boy, cabin-boy, sailor, printer, reporter, and editor, and in 1872 he and two partners started the *San Francisco Post*. This paper a few years later was given over to a creditor. Henry George was born in Philadelphia but spent a considerable part of his life in San Francisco, returning to the East in 1880. In 1886 he ran for mayor of New York as an independent candidate, coming in at the end of the contest behind the Democratic candidate, Abram S. Hewitt, and in advance of the Republican candidate, Theodore Roosevelt. Mr. George was fifty-eight years old at the time of his death. One of his two sons, Henry George, Jr., succeeded him as the nominee of the Jeffersonian Democrats for mayor of New York.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

However widely we may differ from Mr. George's economic principles, it is cheerfully admitted that he was a man of the highest personal character, unquestioned honesty, and no mean ability. He made his own way in the world against many obstacles, and was courageous and unceasing in his efforts to extend his views.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

Henry George was a man of undoubted sincerity. There was much in his theories that conflicted with established doctrines, tried and proven systems, and democratic sentiment, but no one questioned the motives of the earnest advocate. He was deeply impressed by the existence and stubbornness of certain abuses, but was unsound in his conception of remedies. According to his lights he was a man of

high principles. There was nothing of the demagogue or the charlatan about him, and he repudiated the time-servers and tricksters with unflinching courage.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Undenially Mr. George deserves the credit of having been foremost in pressing to public notice a new idea in political economy, and—what is even more important—he has stated the whole economic proposition in a way which virtually will force later economists to take his theories into account.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

There is no question of his honesty of purpose. . . . Mr. George had come to be looked upon as a man distinctively the friend of the poorer classes, but he did not use that friendship to incite men to wrong-doing or deeds of violence.

ENGLAND REJECTS BIMETALISM.

SENATOR EDWARD O. WOLCOTT of Colorado and Gen. Charles J. Paine of Boston, two of the three commissioners appointed by the president last April to arrange for an international bimetallic conference, have returned to the United States after an apparently fruitless mission. The commission's propositions were favorably received in France and the French ambassador to England gave his official support to the commission's work in London. He agreed for his government that France would open its mints to the free coinage of silver providing Great Britain would accede to Mr. Wolcott's proposals, one of which was that the Indian mints should be thrown open to free coinage. But the British cabinet, after submitting the latter proposal to the Indian government, decided adversely to it on October 16. Lord Salisbury in communicating this decision to United States Ambassador Hay stated that in view of this fact he did not see the desirability of a monetary conference but would be pleased to consider any other practical suggestions from the United States government.

(Ind.) *Providence Journal.* (R. I.)

Unless the loss of the gold standard is to be continually invited, there is more reason than ever for the early enactment by Congress of a currency reform measure.

(Rep.) *The Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

For some inexplicable reason England's rejection of the American proposal for a conference on bimetalism appears to be regarded by the Bryanites as a victory for themselves. They don't seem to realize that England has simply dug a deep, dark, lonesome grave for the whole free coinage boom, but she has.

(Ind. Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

Henceforth India will have a stable rate of exchange, because she has at last deliberately and irrevocably adopted the gold standard.

(Dem.) *The Philadelphia Record.* (Pa.)

President McKinley has done what he could, though in vain, for international bimetalism, and it is now the turn of the international bimetalists of the Senate to do what they can to aid Mr. McKinley in his efforts in behalf of currency reform. Will they prove equal to the occasion?

(Ind.) *Public Ledger.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The British government's rejection of bimetalism makes that theory hopeless of adoption as an international policy, but it will probably have no effect on the people who last year insisted so fervently that the United States should adopt bimetalism, regardless of what other nations might do. Senator Wolcott's commission will come home with empty hands, but the fight cannot be considered as ended yet.

(Dem.) *Cincinnati Enquirer.* (O.)

Let us be thankful that the Republicans who are honestly opposed to the gold standard can no longer be used by the gold machine which has leased the Republican party. Let us rejoice that dishonest Republicans, who falsely pretended to be for silver coinage, because it would beat the Republican party to say otherwise, can no longer wear the mask of international bimetalism.

(Dem.) *The Atlanta Constitution.* (Ga.)

As you [the Bimetallic Commission] have demon-

strated that the plea of international bimetalism is a fraud, and that an international agreement is an impossibility, you have accomplished a work wholly out of proportion in its importance to that which you were appointed to perform. The people of this country, without regard to party, owe you a debt of gratitude.

(Ind.) *The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

In brief, the English government is just fond enough of bimetalism to encourage every other country to go ahead and adopt it.

(Rep.) *Denver Republican.* (Col.)

If we are to have bimetalism we must secure it through the independent action of our own government, and that can only be accomplished by the election of a president and a Congress in 1900 firmly bound and pledged to reopen our mints to the free and unrestricted coinage of both gold and silver at the ratio of 16 to 1.

The Standard. (London, England.)

Wide-spread satisfaction will be felt because of the deadly blow the bimetallic craze has received and the decisiveness with which the British government has extricated itself from a conference that would have been a mere waste of time.

The Daily News. (London, England.)

The despatch of the Indian government puts an end to the bimetallic craze in this country, and the amazing thing is that the home government should have required so much elementary instruction from India.

Journal des Debats. (Paris, France.)

The British reply has completely decided the question of free silver, which was brought to the front in such a way that, in spite of the improbability of a different solution, it produced a feeling of uneasiness in the business world. We rejoice that the matter has been finally decided.

Le Temps. (Paris, France.)

In view of England's attitude, an international monetary conference would simply involve the risk of fostering grievous illusions. Nobody can say this would be desirable; consequently things are much simplified for France.

NANSEN IN AMERICA.

THE distinguished Norwegian explorer, Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, is making a lecturing tour in the United States. He arrived in New York on the *Lucania* October 23 and was given an enthusiastic welcome by two hundred and fifty Norwegians who met him in the harbor. In the evening he was tendered a reception in Chickering Hall by the Geographical Society. On the 30th he lectured in the Academy of Music to an audience including the arctic explorers Gen. A. W. Greely and Lieutenant and Mrs. R. E. Peary. His lecture was entitled "Life and Explorations in the Mid-Arctic," and related experiences of his journey in 1893-96. The following week he spoke in Providence, New Haven, Worcester, and Boston, being most cordially received all along his journey. In an interview Dr. Nansen expressed the belief that the pole can be reached and that there are several ways of doing it. One is to let a ship drift as he did, another is to use dogs and sleds as Lieutenant Peary intends doing.



DR. FRIDTJOF NANSEN.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Nansen appeals, indeed, to every intelligence and sympathy: to those who care for geographical survey and to those who love the details of scientific investigation, to "record-breakers" and to sportsmen, to those who admire indomitable courage amid dangers and difficulties unspeakable, and to those

whose best regard is for the tender and gentle phases of domestic life. Above many, perhaps most, comparable adventurers he appears as a well-rounded character, coming into touch with encircling humanity at every point. He will not fail to find among Americans an earnest appreciation of all phases of his character and of all departments of his work. How far his presence here may stimulate the spirit of arctic research and impel Americans to redouble their poleward efforts is food for speculation. Since the American advance has been surpassed it is a satisfaction to have had it done by so manly a representative of a race so closely bound to our own by strong and tender ties. It is a source of inspiration, too, to have so worthy an exemplar to emulate and, one of these days, to surpass.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Fridtjof Nansen was born an explorer. Three centuries ago his ancestors sailed in arctic seas, and when a child he hunted hares in the woods of Norway until he grew old enough to hunt for islands in the North. He is a thorough scientist and a patriotic Norwegian who was bound that none but his countrymen should have a share in the voyage and glories of the *Fram*.

THE SEAL CONFERENCES.

ENGLAND'S refusal to join with representatives of Russia and Japan to consider the sealing question led to the holding of two conferences. The first one, attended by delegates from Russia, Japan, and the United States, met in Washington from October 23 to November 6. It was the opinion of the government experts that steps must be taken to prevent the extermination of the seals. This led the representatives of the three governments to sign a convention looking to the suspension of pelagic sealing until the herds have had time to recuperate. The text of the treaty is to be withheld until its presentation to the United States Senate for ratification. The second conference, composed of representatives of Great Britain, Canada, and the United States, met in Washington the second week of November.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

If the proof of the comparative harmlessness of pelagic seal hunting be as convincing as it is claimed to be, the reluctance of Canada to present the same at a conference of experts is incomprehensible.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Will England, in the special conference which she is ready to have her experts hold with ours, as-

sent to the conclusions just reached? If so, all may go well. If she objects that her action has been forestalled, and that an endeavor is made to force her hand, she may thank her delays in past years for this result. The American view is strengthened by the adhesion to it of Russia and Japan.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

The unfortunate feature about the position of the

United States is that it has no legal right to extend its jurisdiction over the high seas, even though it may be for the protection of a species of animals that make their home, as it were, on American soil. To interfere with British subjects who may be killing seals on the high seas is an infringement of British rights, and it cannot be justified on legal grounds.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

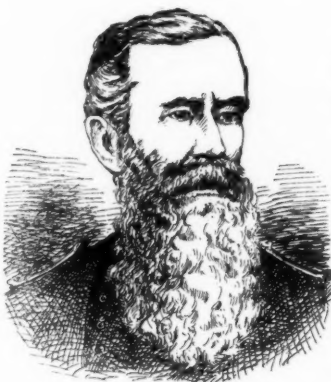
Sir Wilfrid Laurier's announcement that he will take part personally in the sealing conference at Washington between the representatives of the United States and Canada is extremely significant. It shows that the Canadian government

has found that it can no longer safely maintain its attitude of hostility to the American policy with regard to the seal fisheries in Bering Sea, and that the whole question has been placed on new and higher ground by the action of the recent conference.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Undoubtedly the best thing that could happen to us as regards the Bering Sea controversy would be the total disappearance of the seal herd from our territory or jurisdiction, or better still from the world. The poorest kind of an inheritance is to fall heir to a lawsuit, and this is what we gained when we took the Pribyloff Islands under our jurisdiction.

REAR-ADMIRAL WORDEN.



REAR-ADMIRAL JOHN L. WORDEN.

ANOTHER prominent figure in the Civil War passed away October 18 when Rear-Admiral John L. Worden died at his home in Washington, D. C. John Lorimer Worden was born in Sing Sing, N. Y., in 1818. In his sixteenth year he was appointed a midshipman in the American navy and was made a lieutenant in 1846. In 1861 he was despatched to Pensacola with the order that reinforced Fort Pickens and saved it to the Union. After being imprisoned for seven months by the Confederates he was exchanged and was ordered to superintend the building of Ericsson's *Monitor*. He was placed in command of that vessel when completed and in March, 1862, gained the celebrated victory over the *Merrimac* in Hampton Roads. For this service he twice received votes of thanks from Congress and was promoted successively to the grades of commander and captain. He also received resolutions of gratitude from several cities of the Atlantic coast. As soon as his eyes had recovered sufficiently from the injuries received in the engagement he was placed in command of the *Montauk* and with this vessel destroyed the

Confederate privateer *Nashville*, protected by the guns of Fort McAllister. He also took part in the blockade of Charleston and in the attack on Charleston by Admiral Dupont in April, 1863. In 1868 he was promoted to the rank of commodore and from 1870-74 was superintendent of the Naval Academy. He was made rear-admiral in 1872 and commanded the European Squadron from 1875-77. In 1886 he was retired at his own request, with the highest sea-pay of his grade.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The death of John L. Worden wipes from the naval register another of the great names which are indissolubly linked with one of the most brilliant periods of American naval history. The commander of the *Monitor* will live as one of the distinctive figures in the war drama of 1861-65. Success and fame came to him at a bound, but he wore his honors with a modesty and simplicity which leave behind them a gracious memory.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

It is not too much to place the name of Rear-Admiral John L. Worden among the list of those heroes whose special distinction is to have performed a service essential to the preservation of the Union. For if the *Monitor* had not rescued the *Minnesota* and whipped the *Merrimac* in Hampton

Roads on Sunday, March 9, 1862, nothing can be more certain than that the wooden navy of the North would have been paralyzed and the ports of the Confederacy thrown open to unblockaded trade with England and Europe. The destiny of a nation hung upon the success of John Ericsson's bold experiment in naval architecture.

Army and Navy Register. (Washington, D. C.)

Admiral Worden was one of the few officers of the old régime which made the navy so glorious in its achievement and helped to impress an indelible mark of prowess and devotion upon the pages of his country's history.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

When the need next comes, may the country find men as prompt and resolute as John Worden to do their duty.

THE YERKES OBSERVATORY DEDICATED.

ON October 21 The University of Chicago formally accepted another munificent gift. This was the new Yerkes Astronomical Observatory located about seventy-five miles northwest of Chicago, near William's Bay, Wis. The dedication of the building and telescope and their formal presentation to the university were made the occasion of a conference attended by many eminent American and European astronomers. Mr. Charles T. Yerkes of Chicago himself presented the gift, which is valued at \$350,000. The observatory has the greatest refracting telescope in the world; the lens is forty-two inches in diameter. Several astronomical discoveries have already been made with the glass.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Not America alone, but the whole world, will reap the fruits of the liberality and enterprise which have given Chicago's rising university an observatory plant unequaled at present in any other quarter of the globe. Yet, however world-wide the spirit in which the new observatory has been dedicated, it is distinctly gratifying to note in the conception and execution of Mr. Yerkes' generous design so many additional evidences of the conspicuous share America has borne in the advancement of practical astronomical research. For national pride may pardonably be quickened by the fact that not only has American public spirit volunteered the means to construct, but that American ingenuity has perfected, the most searching and powerful lens ever delivered into a trained astronomer's hands.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Already it is announced that the new telescope has brought into view a number of asteroids and planets the existence of which was not before guessed, and doubtless this will be followed by other discoveries of a similar character. And yet, after all, the history of astronomy shows that the observations which needed patience have been made by comparatively small instruments. The huge telescopes of to-day can bring the planets nearer, and still it may be questioned if the largest of them will ever be able to show whether there is life on these far-away worlds. It is said that the Yerkes telescope brings the moon within a hundred miles of the observer; but even at that close distance some things would not be visible that might help the observer to form a definite conclusion.

THE W. C. T. U. CONVENTIONS.



FRANCES E. WILLARD.

President of the World's and National
W. C. T. U.

THREE important gatherings of white ribboners have been held in the past month—the Dominion Convention at Toronto, October 20–22, the World's Convention at Toronto, October 23–26, and the National Convention at Buffalo, October 29–November 3. The World's Convention was of course the center of interest. It numbered among its delegates women from every continent and almost every civilized country on the globe. The reports given showed that the organization has made commendable progress in the past two years. The growth in membership has been greatest in the United States, where it has amounted to 15,888 persons. The address of the president, Miss Willard, was received with the usual enthusiasm. It was comprehensive in scope, and in spirit thoroughly loyal to W. C. T. U. principles. The resolutions adopted by the convention recorded the unswerving devotion of the Union to total abstinence and its unalterable opposition to any system of licensing or regulating the social evil. They condemned the use of opium and tobacco and the cultivation of the poppy plant in India. The equality of man and woman in the home, in the church, in law, and at the ballot-box was strongly affirmed. Lynching, gambling, and strikes were condemned and the principle of an eight-hour law for wage-earners was approved. Regret was expressed at the failure of the Anglo-American arbitration treaty. Resolutions were extended to Queen Victoria congratulating her upon her resplendent reign. The choice of officers for the next two years resulted in the reelection of Miss Frances E. Willard as president; Lady Henry Somerset, vice-president at large; Mrs. M. C. Leavitt, honorary president; Miss Agnes E. Slack, secretary.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

We are pleased to note that the W. C. T. U. have firmly resolved "never to surrender the principles

for which we have always stood as a body, and this we do in the name of God and home and every land." If that band of devoted women should

change its tactics or fall off from its high mission there would be much less in the world to interest and amuse us.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

All fair-minded people will be gratified to learn that a notice to amend the qualifications for membership in this Union by adding the words "without distinction of race and color," when read to the

convention by its secretary, was received with tremendous applause.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union expressed the sentiment of the entire civilized world in its resolutions of regret over the failure of the United States Senate to ratify the arbitration treaty with Great Britain.

GEORGE M. PULLMAN.



GEORGE M. PULLMAN.

THE millionaire car manufacturer, who died in Chicago, October 18, began life in 1831 on a farm in Chautauqua County, N. Y. At fourteen he left school to help provide for the wants of his family, and three years later entered his brother's shop at Albion, N. Y., to learn cabinet-making. When the work of widening the Erie Canal began, about 1850, young Pullman displayed considerable mechanical skill in moving buildings along its banks, and a short time afterward won a reputation as an engineer by raising the Madison Block in Chicago several feet without disturbing the tenants for a single day. One night in 1859 Mr. Pullman, traveling for the first time on one of the rude sleeping-cars then in use, lay awake and thought how the car might be improved. He went back to Chicago and began experiments which resulted two or three years later in the first sleeping-car built on present-day principles. In 1867 the Pullman Palace Car Company was formed. This company now has a paid-up capital of \$36,000,000, owns about 3,000 cars, and employs about 10,000 men. In 1880 Mr. Pullman began to build

the town of Pullman, in the suburbs of Chicago, as a convenient dwelling-place for his employees. The town now has a population of about 12,000, and is provided with all modern improvements. It has never had a saloon or a jail. Mr. Pullman in his will bequeaths \$1,200,000 for the establishment of a manual training school in the place. In addition to being president of the company named above, Mr. Pullman was interested in several railroads and in many Chicago enterprises. His fortune is estimated at about \$50,000,000.

The Burlington Hawkeye. (Ia.)

The fact that Mr. Pullman was able to accumulate, and legitimately, so vast a fortune ought to be a matter of gratulation to every American citizen. It demonstrates what can be done under the stars and stripes. There are other mechanics yet to become successful—hundreds and thousands of them. What has this country to gain by the indoctrination of the theories of "social democracy" and populism, which would discourage the poor man from making the effort to accumulate and threaten him with confiscation if he did?

The Railway and Engineering Review. (Chicago, Ill.)

Mr. Pullman believed that true philanthropy and good business sense go hand in hand—that the public could be educated up to high standards and that it would accept, appreciate, and pay for what is really good. He carried the same idea into his consideration of the welfare of what is known as the working class. He believed that what it

needed was not charity, but opportunity. He believed in the moral influence of material surroundings, and that the first step toward the improvement of the condition of the poor was to enable them to live in conditions of physical comfort without overtaxing their resources.

The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

There may be little public regret at the death of Mr. Pullman, yet his life furnishes an illustration of what an industrious and thrifty American can do if he is shrewd enough to see his opportunities and active enough to take advantage of them.

The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

Its history [that of the town of Pullman] has proved how difficult, if not impossible, it is for one man to regulate the lives of others, even when his motive is philanthropic and his labors entirely for the betterment of their condition. It is certain to be a long time before any public-spirited capitalist tries a similar experiment.

MILLS HOUSE, NO. 1.

A MODEL hotel for men in moderate circumstances was opened on Bleeker Street, New York City, November 1. It is known as Mills House, No. 1 and is the first of two hotels which Mr. D. O. Mills of New York is erecting for the accommodation of men who desire comfortable lodging and good board at slight cost. The house is a **ten-story** building of Indiana limestone and white brick and contains 1,560 single rooms, handsomely furnished and well heated, lighted, and ventilated. It is provided with bathrooms and lavatories, and luxuriously furnished reading, writing, and smoking-rooms free to all guests. Books and games are loaned to guests on application. The uniform price for lodging is twenty cents per night. A restaurant in the building furnishes meals at ten cents and upwards. No gambling, no intoxicating liquors, or intoxicated persons are allowed on the premises.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

There has just been opened in the city of New York a hotel the working of which and its success or failure will doubtless be watched with interest. It makes no boast of being a philanthropic or an eleemosynary institution, the projectors declaring frankly that their enterprise is a business one, and that they look for a profit from it. Its inception is due to the knowledge that in every large city there are many men whose earnings, even when their employment is steady, are small; who are compelled by the very nature of their avocations to appear re-

spectable, and who are often necessarily compelled to expend money on food and lodging which they might otherwise save or put to some practical use. The idea, therefore, has been to provide a place for them at a moderate cost of living, and yet with the comforts which they could secure at a more pretentious establishment. That there is need for such a place, and that men realize the advantages which it offers, is shown by the number of applications which have come from professional workers with small salaries, or who are striving to build up a business and a reputation for themselves.

CHICAGO'S WAR ON DEPARTMENT STORES.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

WAR has been declared against Chicago's great department stores by the smaller traders of the city. The department stores, they say, threaten to ruin every small tradesman in Chicago by a system of selling at cut rates, the concentration of many lines of business under one roof, and the reduction thereby of the cost of operating the stores. Some of the larger stores in Chicago have from sixty to one hundred and fifty departments, and customers may buy in them almost anything, from a diamond necklace to a ton of coal. They operate groceries, meat markets, banks, barber shops, dental offices, and sell dogs, birds, bicycles, horses, and harness; they make photographs, give music lessons, and run employment agencies where domestic and other help may be obtained. In fact, there is no industry unknown to the Chicago department stores. Their "bargain days" have caused the small retailers countless heartaches, and "uptown" merchants decided that something must be done.

With this end in view they formed the Cook County Business Men's Protective Association, and branches were organized in the three large divisions of the city. The membership swelled to about six thousand. The association tried to stop the department store evil by legislation. A bill was prepared, the provisions of which were that no man or firm should conduct more than one line of business under one roof and within four walls. It

graded the art of merchandising into about sixty groups. Under the provisions of this bill such firms as Siegel, Cooper & Co., The Fair, and A. M. Rothschild & Co. would have to pay about \$150,000 to \$160,000 annually in license fees, besides going to the enormous expense of erecting partition walls to enclose each branch of their business. A mass-meeting was held by the small merchants and a committee of three hundred made a trip to Springfield. At Springfield the committee was left in the cold, for the legislature refused to pass the bill.

Two ordinances were then prepared and presented to the city council, which passed them. The ordinances prohibit the sale of meats and provisions and wines and liquors in the same establishment in which dry goods and kindred articles are sold. Warrants for the offending department store proprietors will be forthcoming shortly, the traders say. It is intended to push the matter to the Supreme Court. The fine for the non-observance of the measures has been set at from \$25 to \$200. In case of conviction the association will lay claim to half the amount of the fine, the other part reverting to the city treasury. No suits have been begun as yet against the department store proprietors, although the ordinances are violated in every department store daily. It is intended to organize in wards and make the branches of the Cook County Business Men's Protective Association a powerful factor in politics and in shaping legislation.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

October 7. The president appoints consuls at Edinburgh, Barbadoes, Colon, and Hankow.

October 8. Dr. George H. Bridgman of New Jersey is appointed United States minister to Bolivia.

October 11. The Supreme Court of the United States begins the October term in Washington.

October 12. The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions meets in New Haven.

October 13. Dr. Jerome H. Raymond is inaugurated president of the West Virginia University at Morgantown.—The fifteenth conference of Friends of the Indian opens at Lake Mohonk.

October 17. The Minnesota Presbyterian Synod adopts measures to counteract the spread of Mormonism in that state.

October 19. The New York Synod of the Presbyterian Church meets in Jersey City, N. J.

October 20. Secretary of War Alger issues an order establishing a military reservation on St. Michael Island, Alaska.—Prof. James M. Crafts is elected to succeed Gen. Francis A. Walker as president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

October 21. The centennial of the launching of the frigate *Constitution* is celebrated in Boston.—President McKinley appoints Medical Director W. K. Van Reypen surgeon-general of the navy to succeed the late Newton L. Bates.

October 22. In his annual report General Miles recommends that Congress authorize two more regiments of artillery and five of infantry.—Charter Day is celebrated in Princeton, N. J.

October 23. Secretary Long issues an order that removals shall be made from the Navy Department and navy-yards only for just cause and upon written charges which the accused shall be allowed to answer.—The sealing conference is organized in Washington, with delegates from the United States, Russia, and Japan present.

October 24. A train on the New York Central Railroad falls into the Hudson River near Garrison's, N. Y., and nineteen persons are killed.

FOREIGN.

October 8. Professor Slaby, experimenting with Marconi's wireless telegraphy in Germany, exchanges messages without wires at a distance of about twelve miles.

October 11. The Irish Independent League in

Dublin demands home rule and praises Parnell's policy.

October 12. The Turkish government proposes to the powers disarmament of both Christians and Mussulmans in Crete, the appointment of a governor by the sultan, and the formation of a *gendarmerie* corps.—The troops forming the Mamund punitive expedition destroy twenty-six fortified villages and many of the insurgent natives are killed.

October 15. The king of Corea proclaims himself emperor.

October 17. Windsor, Nova Scotia, is destroyed by fire, rendering three thousand persons homeless.

October 18. The Greek and Turkish commissioners appointed to conclude a definite treaty of peace meet in Constantinople.

October 19. The Servian cabinet resigns, supposedly on account of the return of ex-King Milan to the Servian capital.

October 20. A French post in Madagascar is attacked by a band of Sakalavas and many of the garrison killed.—British forces in India sustain severe losses in dislodging tribesmen.

October 21. The Turkish government grants permission to the Thessalian refugees to return to their homes.—Several towns and villages on the island of Leyte, one of the Philippines, are destroyed by a cyclone.

October 22. The Japanese government agrees to arbitrate the entire dispute with Hawaii.

October 23. A new cabinet is formed in Servia, with Dr. Wladan Georgevitch as premier.—An exciting debate takes place in the French Chamber of Deputies regarding the price of bread.

October 24. Sir Richard Henn Collins is appointed lord justice of appeals in England.

November 5. Soldiers are arrested in the French garrison at Nancy for distributing anarchist literature.—Great Britain declines to take part in the Florida Fisheries Conference.

NECROLOGY.

October 8. Ex-United States Senator John R. McPherson, N. J.

October 18. Newton L. Bates, surgeon-general of the navy and President McKinley's family physician.

October 22. Justin Winsor, librarian of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.—Dr. Newton Bateman, president of Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.

October 27. Duchess of Teck, cousin of Queen Victoria.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR DECEMBER.

First Week (ending December 3).

- "Imperial Germany." Chapter X.
- "The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "A Study of Schiller."
- Sunday Reading for November 28.

Second Week (ending December 10).

- "Imperial Germany." Chapter XI.
- "The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "The Eastern Policy of Germany."
- Sunday Reading for December 5.

Third Week (ending December 17).

- "Imperial Germany." Chapter XII.
- "The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XIII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "The Trend of American Commerce."
- Sunday Reading for December 12.

Fourth Week (ending December 24).

- "Imperial Germany." Chapter XIII.
- "The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XIV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "Christ in Art."
- "Winter Bird-Life."
- Sunday Reading for December 19.

FOR JANUARY.

First Week (ending January 8).

- "Imperial Germany." Chapter XIV.
- "The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN :

- "The City of Berlin."
- Sunday Reading for January 2.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR DECEMBER.

First Week.

1. Essay—Woman's part in the history of Germany.
2. Select Reading—"Of Women," from Madame de Staël's "Germany."
3. Essay—Schiller's contemporaries.
4. Historical Study—Germany in Schiller's time.
5. A Political Study—Municipal reform in New York.

Second Week.

Moltke Day—December 3.

And, though the warrior's sun has set,
Its light shall linger round us yet,
Bright, radiant, blest.

—From "*Coplas de Manrique*" (translated by Longfellow).

1. Subjects for Short Talks—Moltke's boyhood; his early manhood; his visit in the East; his accomplishments; Moltke as a strategist; Moltke's character; Moltke's motto.
2. A Paper—Moltke's influence on the reconstruction of the map of Europe.
3. A Character Study—The trinity who made the New German Empire possible.
4. A Paper—Moltke's military campaigns.
5. A Talk—The Supreme Court of the United States.*

Third Week.

1. Essay—The commercial interests of Germany, France, and the United States.

2. Debate—Resolved: That the state should provide for technical, as well as for liberal, education in the common schools.
3. General Discussion—Do the results accomplished by college settlements justify their continuance?
4. A Talk—German patriotism and lese-majesty.
5. General Conversation—The necrology for the month.*

Fourth Week.

1. An Essay—The influence of the German press compared with that of the American press.
2. A Study—Nature as depicted by James Lane Allen in "The Kentucky Cardinal."
3. A Talk—The public amusements of the community.
4. General Discussion—What a village improvement society can do for this community.
5. Table Talk—Spain and the United States.*

FOR JANUARY.

First Week.

1. Essay—The great men of Germany.
2. A Paper—The rivers of Germany.
3. An Address—A visit to the principal cities of Germany.
4. Book Review—"The Art of Living," by Robert Grant.
5. Table Talk—The news of the week.

*See *Current History and Opinion*.

*See *Current History and Opinion*.

QUESTIONS ON "THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

The following questions on "The Social Spirit in America," prepared by Prof. C. R. Henderson, may be used as subjects for interesting discussions at the weekly meetings of the circle:

Chapter XI.—Political Reforms.

What documents contain the laws of the United States and of each state?

Give an outline of the Constitution of the United States.

What is the social use of a political party?

What are the aims of "civil service reform"?

What is the "Corrupt Practices Act"?

Describe the Australian ballot.

Chapter XII.—The Social Spirit in the State School System.

What is the social function of the free common school?

Why does a democracy specially need general education?

What are some of the objections to making education "free" and "compulsory"?

What is your nearest school doing to promote good taste?

What are the chief obstacles to good work in rural schools?

Draw up an argument for manual training schools.

How can you secure or improve a free library?

Chapter XIII.—Voluntary Organization of Education.

Give examples of schools not supported by the state.

Why should not church and private schools receive a part of the school tax?

Describe the Chautauqua method.

Give an account of a woman's club known to you.

Explain University Extension.

Explain the Home Library scheme.

What is the object of a settlement?

Chapter XIV.—Socialized Beauty and Recreation.

Why is play important in education?

What is the use of beauty?

Why is music of highest value?

Describe some effort in your state to make a street, town, or cemetery beautiful.

How is a Village Improvement Society organized?

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

P. 228. "Minnesingers." Lyric poets of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. These poets were men of noble descent and most of their songs were in the Swabian dialect. They accompanied their pieces on the viol and sometimes furnished entertainment for princes and ladies at court by poetical contests.

P. 229. "Madame de Staël [stäl]. A noted French author born in 1766.

P. 229. "Salic law." The code of law used by the Salians, or Salic Franks, a German tribe who invaded Gaul in the fifth century and under the leadership of Clovis acquired possession of the country and founded the French monarchy. One clause of the Salic code prevented women from inheriting "any landed estate which is not an acquired but an inherited possession in the family." In France women could not succeed to the throne.

P. 244. *Schadenfreude* [shäd'en-froi-de].

P. 244. "Aristides" [ar-is-ti'dēz]. A famous Athenian general and statesman of the fifth century ostracized by the influence of Themistocles, another influential Athenian.—"Shell." Each citizen voting for the ostracism of any one dropped into an urn provided for the purpose a shell bearing the name of the person he wished exiled.

P. 261. "Mühlhausen" [mül'how-zen].

P. 267. "Rococo." A style of decorative art which was composed of a confused mass of scrolls, foliage, and animal forms.

P. 269. "Sarreguemines" [särg-mēn']. The French name of Saargemünd [sär'ge-münd], a town in Lorraine.

P. 277. "Junius." The pseudonym used by the author of a series of papers directed against the British ministry which appeared in a London paper between 1768 and 1772. It is now thought they were written by Sir Philip Francis.

P. 281. "Feuilleton" [fē-lye-ton'].

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

P. 192. "Amiel" [ä-mē-el']. A Swiss scholar and professor of moral philosophy at the Academy of Geneva, in 1853. He died in 1881.

P. 194. "Bastille" [bas-tēl']. A noted state prison in Paris.

P. 200. "École Professionnelle." School adapted to business or trades.

P. 232. "Denison." A British philanthropist who worked among the poor and criminal classes of East London. He inaugurated a system of education for the poor, the development of which resulted in the university settlements. He died in

Australia in 1870.—"Toynbee." An English philanthropist (1852-83) who worked among the poor in Whitechapel. Toynbee Hall, an institution established for the purpose of furnishing educa-

tional facilities and means of recreation for the poor, is a monument to his memory.

P. 234. "Mazzini" [mät-sē'ne]. A revolutionist and patriot of Italy. He died in 1872.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"CHRIST IN ART."

1. "Merson." A French artist born in 1846.
2. "Guido Reni" [gwē'dō rā'nee]. An Italian painter who lived from 1575 to 1642.
3. "Gérôme" [zhā-rōm']. A French artist born in 1824.
4. "Cranach" [kran'ak or krä'näk]. A celebrated German engraver and painter who lived from 1472 to 1553.
5. "Munkacsy" [moon-kä'chē]. A famous Hungarian artist of the present century.
6. "Correggio" [kor-red'jō]. An Italian painter of the sixteenth century.
7. "Murillo" [mū-ril'ō or moo-rēl'yō]. A Spanish artist of the seventeenth century.
8. "Titian" [tish'an]. A Venetian painter. He died in 1576.
9. "Giulio Romano" [joo'lē-ō rō-mā'no]. An Italian architect and painter of the first half of the sixteenth century. He was a pupil of Raphael.
10. "Vinci" [vin'che]. An Italian painter and sculptor. He died in 1519.

11. "Morghen" [mor'gen]. A famous Italian engraver, born in 1758.

12. "Hunt." An English artist of the nineteenth century.

13. "Rubens" [roo'benz]. A Flemish painter who lived from 1577 until 1640.

"THE EASTERN POLICY OF GERMANY."

1. "Dreikaiserbund." Alliance of the three emperors. In the autumn of 1872 the emperors of Germany, Austria, and Russia with their chancellors met at Berlin, at which time the Dreikaiserbund was informally organized for the purpose of dominating continental politics.

2. "Manteuffel" [män'toif-fel]. A Prussian politician.

3. "Status quo." A Latin phrase meaning the state, or condition, in which things were or are now.

4. "Kutchuk-Kainardji" [koot-chook'-kī-närd'jē]. A treaty between Turkey and Russia, concluded in 1774, by which Russia obtained possession of territory in the Crimea and on the Black Sea.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

1. Q. For what does Tacitus praise the German women? A. For their chastity.
2. Q. What next to history affords a clue to the character of a nation's women? A. The literature of a country.
3. Q. What criticism does the author make on the German ideal woman? A. She is a little too self-forgetfully devoted, too slavishly worshiping, not to make one feel a lack of that strong individuality found in women of Slavonic race.
4. Q. What is the result of the uneventful life of the German woman? A. Her virtues are tinged with the idiosyncrasies of her surroundings.
5. Q. Among what classes do the German women enjoy an independence approaching that of English women? A. Among the German aristocracy and the plutocracy.
6. Q. How does the average of married happiness in Germany compare with that in England? A. It seems to be higher.
7. Q. What are some of the characteristics of the typical German husband? A. Lack of appre-

ciation of his wife's qualities, restlessness of temperament, and selfishness.

8. Q. What is noted as one of the brightest sides of the German character? A. That their best intellect seems to have remained wonderfully sober in the midst of intoxicating success.

9. Q. What do the Germans fear? A. Social democracy and the Philistine spirit.

10. Q. What are some of the characteristics of the German Philistine? A. *Schadenfreude*—joy over the misfortunes of others; envy and arrogance.

11. Q. Of what nature is the patriotism of the Philistine? A. It is peculiarly arrogant and aggressive, yet windy and empty.

12. Q. What is the favorite pastime of the Philistine? A. Slander.

13. Q. Why is the Philistine spirit doubly dangerous? A. Because it appeals even to intellectual men on their weakest side—their vanity.

14. Q. To what influence is attributed the coarseness and arrogance allied to a high standard of book education to be met with in Germany? A. The Philistine influence.

15. Q. What has been a great failing of the Germans? A. The preference for what is foreign.

16. Q. What does the author say in regard to the manufacturing and commercial interests of Germany? A. That during the last fifteen years they have increased enormously.

17. Q. In what may be found the explanation of Germany's success in foreign trade? A. Not so much in the cheapness as in the superior adaptability of the German as a producer.

18. Q. What are some of the advantages possessed by the German? A. Cheapness of labor, their excellent technical school, and adaptability in applying their skilled knowledge to the changing demands of the market.

19. Q. What is one of the most striking causes of recent German commercial success? A. The genius of adaptability combined with an extraordinary concentration and earnestness of purpose, which shows itself down to the meanest details of commercial life.

20. Q. What besides commercial adaptability has contributed to Germany's success? A. The patronage and support of the government, the thorough education of its merchants and its clerks, and the careful training and superior education of its workmen.

21. Q. By what is the German adaptability accompanied? A. By lack of originality of taste and production in commerce.

22. Q. By what is the want of practical ability in the nation abundantly proved? A. By the almost medieval character of their beds and by their disregard of the laws of health in the lack of ventilation in their houses.

23. Q. To what does the German talent for adaptation often lead? A. To downright piracy and even fraudulent imitation.

24. Q. How is injustice often done to themselves as well as to foreigners? A. By the loose construction of the German laws for the protection of trade-marks and designs.

25. Q. What effect have German importations had on the public taste? A. A deteriorating effect.

26. Q. In almost every German trade what process is observable? A. The process of copying and underselling each other.

27. Q. What is the attitude of the German toward journalism? A. He fears its power, but as a rule he does not respect it.

28. Q. What is the character of political partisanship in the press? A. Very violent.

29. Q. What is the present status of the German press? A. It is an energetic exponent of public opinion, its news is varied, and it is carried on on broad commercial principles.

30. Q. How do the German papers attempt to increase their circulation? A. They adopt the

feuilleton, with its anecdotal gossip, and sometimes they are forced to publish serial stories.

31. Q. In what does the German press surpass the English? A. In the dispassionate, thorough *résumé* of a political or social question as well as in criticism, particularly on art and science.

32. Q. In what does the main typical difference between English and German papers consist? A. In the *feuilleton*.

33. Q. How does the German press compare with the French? A. It is far purer than the French.

34. Q. What is the one moral blot on German journalism? A. The character of its advertisements.

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

1. Q. What is the first political duty of a patriotic citizen? A. To become acquainted with the framework and activity of the national, state, city, county, and township governments and to learn the duties of each official in the different branches of government.

2. Q. For what is this systematic study a preparation? A. The intelligent reading of the daily newspaper.

3. Q. In governmental affairs through what does the individual generally act? A. A political party.

4. Q. What is a healthy, worthy party? A. A voluntary organization of citizens for promoting the welfare of the whole nation.

5. Q. What method is suggested for securing the most perfect municipal administration possible? A. The united action of the voters in entire disregard of party affiliations in the election of city officials.

6. Q. On what principle is civil service reform founded? A. The principle of merit.

7. Q. What is thought to be the weakest point in our government? A. The management of our cities.

8. Q. What is the purpose of the new ballot-system? A. The suppression of intimidation and bribery at elections.

9. Q. What does the referendum enable the people to do? A. Check the legislature after it has acted.

10. Q. What right and power does proportional representation carry with it? A. The right and power of any respectable number or class of citizens, even if the majority is against them, to send legislators to the law-making bodies of the commonwealth or city to present their views, urge their rights, and to check the arbitrary and tyrannical action of those who chance to be in power.

11. Q. Upon what does the quality of the schools in a democratic country largely depend? A. Upon the cooperation of the people.

12. Q. What is meant by the school-system? A. That social institution by which the entire people consciously and of set purpose seeks to transmit its knowledge and its higher ideals to the next generation.

13. Q. With what is the school closely connected? A. With the home?

14. Q. How do private schools endanger the common schools? A. They tend to alienate their patrons from the common schools, the tax for which is then regarded as an injustice.

15. Q. How may citizens assist the public schools? A. By sympathetic study of education, by listening intelligently to expert leaders of schools, by generous financial support, and by activity in promoting improvements.

16. Q. What are leaders of kindergartens doing to promote the reciprocal relations of home and school? A. Calling conferences of mothers.

17. Q. What plan for the improvement of country schools is proposed? A. Consolidation of the small schools into a large school at the center of population.

18. Q. For what teaching is there a growing demand? A. The teaching of human duties and virtues on the general basis of social obligations.

19. Q. How is the fact that education is a growth of the free social spirit, native to our soil, made evident? A. By the creation, maintenance, and endowment of many schools and associations which owe nothing to the governments save charters, protection, and exemption from taxation.

20. Q. What are some of these schools and associations? A. Parochial schools, the Chautauqua System of Education, colleges and universities, women's clubs, household economic associations, and farmers' reading circles.

21. Q. Out of what two considerations has the University Extension movement grown? A. The considerations that scholars are in possession of truths which the world needs to guide its conduct and enlarge its vision, and that scholars owe a part of their life to the people whose labors sustain them and whose institutions protect them.

22. Q. What three methods of instruction are employed by the University Extension work? A. The lecture-study, correspondence, and class-study methods.

23. Q. What is the very essence of the social settlement? A. The gift of one's self to a certain locality.

24. Q. By what is the confidence of Americans in education manifested? A. The establishment of missionary schools among the negroes and Indians.

25. Q. What summer work has already been inaugurated in crowded portions of New York City? A. Vacation schools for the care of poor children when the regular work of the public schools is suspended.

26. Q. What are two valuable reformatory agents? A. Beauty and play.

27. Q. What is Jevons' opinion in regard to the deliberate cultivation of public amusement? A. That it is one of the principal means to a higher civilization.

28. Q. What are the two forms of esthetic enjoyment? A. Passive appreciation and active creation.

29. Q. In regard to the appreciative and creative powers of the poorest people, what have the social settlements shown? A. That they can appreciate the best pictures and music, and that they have unsuspected resources of entertainment within themselves.

30. Q. What is the art which every family can help cultivate? A. The art of making the face of nature beautiful.

31. Q. What is generally the cause of the ugliness of our towns? A. They are laid out and built up without a definite plan.

32. Q. To what is the movement to preserve and improve our natural scenery closely connected? A. The movement to promote good roads.

33. Q. What expenditures are classed by Professor Giddings under the head of "culpable luxury"? A. Expenditures for objects which are esthetically bad; which do not increase the sum of beauty, of refinement, and of general cultivation in the community.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—III.

1. Of what was the duchy of Prussia once the fief?
2. When did the relation end?
3. What electorate was the nucleus of the kingdom of Prussia?
4. When was the duchy of Prussia united to that electorate?

5. Who was the third king of Prussia?
6. What did Macaulay say of Frederick William I.?
7. By whom was laid the foundation of Prussia's military power? What seemed to be his ruling mania?
8. With whose administration does the greatness of the Prussian monarchy begin?

9. What important war occurred during his reign?

10. After this war what rank did Prussia occupy among the European nations?

GERMAN LITERATURE.—III.

1. What Roman historian wrote about the early Germans?

2. When did he write?

3. What was Luther's most inspired hymn?

4. What was his belief concerning the education of the young?

5. How was secular literature looked upon at the time of the Reformation?

6. Who was the founder of the German school-system?

7. Who was the most productive poet in the first half of the sixteenth century?

8. About how many poems did he write?

9. When did the first newspaper (*Zeitung*) appear in Germany?

10. What was the source of the first novels of Germany?

NATURE STUDIES.—III.

1. About how many species of birds are known to science?

2. What is the name of the class to which birds belong?

3. Between what two classes are birds placed and to which are they more closely related?

4. From what kind of ancestors have birds descended?

5. Of what does the evidence of such descent consist?

6. How does the distribution of birds compare with that of other animals?

7. How may this be accounted for?

8. In what three relations are birds valuable to man?

9. In what lies the economic value of birds?

10. Why should hawks and owls be protected?

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.

1. Who was the first chief justice of the United States?

2. Of how many members does the Supreme Court consist?

3. By whom and for how long are the members appointed?

4. When does the court hold its sessions?

5. Who was the inventor of the turret-ship?

6. On what national import was this invention?

7. In what conflict was its value first made known?

8. When was the Monroe Doctrine declared?

9. What treaty was signed soon after?

10. What is the oldest existing newspaper in the United States?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR NOVEMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—II.

1. About the tenth century. 2. Borussi, or Porussi. 3. Bishop Adalbert of Prague; he was hewing down their sacred oak. 4. They feared that if they adopted Christianity they would lose their freedom. 5. About the middle of the thirteenth century when the Teutonic knights began a crusade against them. 6. From the official dress of the order of Teutonic knights, a white mantle and black cross. 7. Frederick William, the Great Elector. 8. The fall of Warsaw and the independence of Prussia. 9. Frederick I., son of Frederick William, the Great Elector. 10. He purchased it of Emperor Leopold I. with the promise to furnish troops for the War of the Spanish Succession just threatening, to support the house of Austria in the debates in the Diet, and to vote for its princes at the imperial elections.

GERMAN LITERATURE.—II.

1. For a century or more the works were preserved orally, having been handed down largely by tradition. 2. Hartmann von Aue, Wolfram von Eschenbach, Gottfried von Strassburg, and Walther von der Vogelweide. 3. Most of the romances were taken from some other language, chiefly from the French. 4. The literature of the church. 5. The political condition of the empire. 6. The university at Prague. 7. Books became cheap and literature was no longer the privilege of the rich, but became the business of the burghers. 8. New High German. 9. Luther's writings permanently fixed the literary language of Germany. 10. In 1534, at Wittenberg.

NATURE STUDIES.—II.

1. Protoplasm. 2. A coating of loose cells called the root-cap. 3. By storing the starch and living material into a special layer of the bark. 4. Knobs or buds consisting of outer layers of leaves or scales which protect the delicate young leaves within. 5. By the formation at the point where the leaf-stalk joins the branch of a row of cork cells, in appearance like the prolongation of the epidermis. 6. By hard coats of poisonous juices. 7. In early autumn. 8. In the warm days of early spring. 9. About the first of June. 10. In October; in moist sand.

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. The Indianapolis Board of Trade; January 12 and 13, 1897. 2. To create a sentiment in favor of

an improved system of banking and currency. 3. A committee of fifteen was appointed to urge upon Congress the necessity of passing a law authorizing the president to appoint a monetary commission of eleven members to consider ways and means for putting into effect the propositions of the convention. 4. The Stone Bill; after passing the House it was sent to the Senate, where it was referred to

the Finance Committee to await further action until the next session of Congress. 5. July 24, at 4:06 o'clock p. m. 6. July 24, at 12:01 a. m. 7. July 4; in the Pittsburg district. 8. Ohio, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Illinois, and West Virginia. 9. Three; in 1900. 10. Every four years by an electoral college the members of which are elected by universal direct suffrage.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1901.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner; S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

CHEERING letters from all directions indicate that the Class of '98 intends to reach the goal with the best possible record behind it. Reports from various points of the compass show how earnestly the work is being done. Many circles have already renewed for their fourth year and are planning to be represented at Chautauqua next summer. Among other reports comes one from an army post out in Utah, where the assistant surgeon and his wife send in their memoranda for the past year and their renewals for the coming year.

ANOTHER member up in the highlands of North Carolina finds herself quite behind, owing to the many hindrances, but if she does not finish with her class will join the ranks of '99. She writes: "I enjoyed the reading very much, though the memoranda were hard for me to fill out because I had to leave school so early; and then besides I have to do my reading in the store and am often hindered by customers coming in." One can realize how much such an isolated classmate enjoys the feeling of association with the great multitude of fellow workers.

STILL another gives a little different side of life. She writes from a busy town in one of the northern states: "I am too much of an invalid and too weak physically to fill out the memoranda, as in this I have no one to help me, but my mother, who is in her seventy-second year, has assisted me in the reading. My father was a member of the Pioneer Class and an enthusiastic Chautauquan, and I can but love the Chautauqua work."

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—John A. Travis, Washington, D. C.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlyle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, England; Miss Alice Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tientsin, China.

Secretary—Miss Isabelle T. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer—John C. Whiteford, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Trustee—Miss M. A. Bortle, Mansfield, O.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

THE Patriots are making splendid progress on their year's work, and the following letter indicates the spirit which animates many of the class: "All through the past summer I was unable to copy my memoranda until the week just past. This so isolated and discouraged me that I concluded again to give it all up; but when I think of those fresh new books awaiting all who will avail themselves of the priceless opportunity, and recall the fact that I have read through five distinct though disconnected years and yet never completed the course, I resolve to mail you my memoranda, procure the books and delightful magazine, and keep right along with the Class of '99."

ANOTHER member of the class who has read part of her Chautauqua Course some years ago proposes to finish up during the next two years and graduate with '99. As a teacher in the Indian Schools at Cheyenne Agency, South Dakota, she naturally leads a busy life, but writes: "I feel greatly the need of systematic study." This isolated classmate lives seventy-five miles from the post-office, and receives her mail only once a month. The Patriots send her hearty greetings.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

"Licht, Liebe, Leben."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—Rev. John A. McKamy, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, Canisteo, N. Y.; J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Mabel Campbell, 53 Younglove Ave., Cohoes, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

THE drooping spirits of many a member of the Class of 1900 have been greatly cheered by a recent communication from the central office, reminding them that it is not necessary to fill out the memoranda in order to graduate. Those who are a little behind in the reading and who have been fearful lest they should not accomplish as much as they would like have taken hold with new enthusiasm and may well hope to come out with flying colors at the end of the year. Indeed there is no more hopeful time in the history of the class than at the beginning of its second year. With the first year the plan is wholly an experiment, and many students who start with high hopes meet with disappointment, yet to many of these success is by no means an impossibility, and the experience of the first year will help to win the battles of the second.

AN enthusiastic member of the class writes from Kentucky, where, although she is of necessity a lone reader, she is carrying on her work with enthusiasm enough to supply a whole circle. She sends for a ribbon badge of the class, and makes interested inquiries about a class pin. As the preceptress of an important school, her cares are many, but she writes: "The reading is a tonic to me in the midst of our work. 'The Social Spirit in America' is the most fascinating book I have ever read. I find myself reading and reading and thinking and thinking as I have never thought before."

ANOTHER member of the class is a good illustration of the fact that what ought to be done usually can be done. In connection with her first year as a Chautauquan, she not only returns the memoranda for the regular reading, but for the Garnet Seal Course, the Special French and Greek Courses, and the Current History Course, and writes, "I am a farmer's wife and a very busy woman, and so have not done as much supplementary reading as I hoped to do. I have wanted to take the Chautauqua Course ever since it started, but put it off every year because I was 'so busy.' Bishop Vincent's words at Winfield last summer inspired me to try it, and my thirteen-year-old boy has enjoyed the course even more than I have. We both hope to come to Chautauqua in 1900."

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS."

"*Light, Love, Life.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—William H. Mosely, New Haven, Conn.; Rev. George S. Duncan, D. C.; John Sinclair, New York; Mrs. Samuel George, W. Va.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Harriet Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—COREOPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

THE Twentieth Century Class is growing rapidly in all parts of the country. The class president was greatly cheered, while on a trip through the Yellowstone in September, to meet members of his class at several points in the West, and to learn of the formation of new circles. He sends greetings to all classmates and hopes for reports from all parts of the country showing what the various members are doing to recruit the ranks.

REQUESTS for information are reported as coming into the Buffalo office in great numbers. The class already numbers among its ranks people of every calling, and also from widely distributed parts of the globe. Nearly twenty new members have been reported from Mexico, and the enrollment in that country promises to be a large one. Another pleasant addition to the ranks is to be noted in the Jewish Chautauqua Circle of Selma, Ala. The Jewish branch of the C. L. S. C. was organized some years ago under the direction of Dr. Berkowitz of Philadelphia, and all of the later C. L. S. C. classes include members from this department. The class is most happy to welcome into its ranks this fine circle from the far South.

A SPECIAL note from the chancellor is being sent to all members with the Membership Book. This note has done much to put inspiration into the class, and it is hoped that every member will read it frequently and be inspired to do his best. Much enthusiasm is to be found everywhere over the work of the German-Roman year, and if every member of the class will keep his eye steadily fixed upon the goal which he is to reach in 1901 the C. L. S. C. will begin the twentieth century with a graduating class worthy of the new era.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

MEMBERS of the Class of '97 have already passed into the ranks of the graduates. During the month of October, many hundreds of diplomas have gone out all over the country into the hands of the graduates who were unable to attend the summer Assemblies and receive their diplomas there. Already many of these graduates have entered upon the regular work of '97-'98, wishing to add seals to their diplomas, and in part to review the work of the four years, and also to take up the new subjects presented in the course for this year.

A GREAT variety of courses claim the attention of these young graduates. The Current History Course is deservedly a favorite, and graduates who have had their special interest awakened in some one

line of study as touched upon during the four years are now following up this interest with the study of a special course.

New graduate organizations are being formed in many communities, and these promise to make the work of the graduates more effective. A special circular for the direction of graduate societies known as S. H. G. organizations has been prepared by the central office, and every graduate who can effect an organization of the S. H. G. is urged to send for the circular.

MISS SUSAN HALE's delightful course, entitled "A Reading Journey through England," has awakened much interest among the graduates, and several circles are taking up this course.

THE following letter shows how these special courses are studied under what might be considered most unfavorable conditions. A Wisconsin student states with regard to his study of the Bible Course, that, while he has read the Bible in a haphazard sort of way, his present work under a systematic plan gives the whole book an entirely different meaning. This student, who is also taking the Shakespeare Course, writes, "I now live on the shore of a small lake in the wood, nine miles from any railroad or town, and two and one half miles from the road. We probably will not see any one except a stray hunter or fisherman until spring, except as we go to the town or post-office." Up in

this isolated community this Chautauquan keeps up a small circulating library, and makes his camp a center of good influences.

THE older graduate classes, from the Pioneers of '82 to last year's Class of '96, are all represented by active workers. The Class of '88 are preparing for their decennial next year, and are sending out an attractive circular, which includes announcements of their plans. Every member of '88 who has not received this circular should notify the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo. The Class of '96 have provided themselves with some most attractive class stationery, and the percentages from its sale go to help along the class building. The welcome news has been received that the building is being finished on the inside, and next year will present a most attractive appearance to the classes who make their home there.

THE following interesting letter comes from Mr. Alden, a member of the Class of '95: "We have been spending a very quiet and restful summer here in North Carolina mountains. Of course we have missed Chautauqua, but it seemed desirable to try one summer in a place where it was really possible to rest. We think of everything there very often, and on Sundays at five o'clock gather on the plaza of our 'inn' in company with the other boarders and neighboring visitors and join in the old Vesper Service, 'Day is dying in the west.'"

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1897-98.

WILLIAM I. DAY—October 25.

BISMARCK DAY—November 16.

MOLTKE DAY—December 3.

PLINY DAY—January 23.

JUSTINIAN DAY—February 10.

FREDERICK II. DAY—March 20.

MOHAMMED DAY—April 3.

NICCOLO PISANO DAY—May 28.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

EVERY part of the wide Chautauqua field feels the stir of new activity at this time of year. State and county secretaries and a vast number of unofficial workers are establishing new circles and reorganizing old ones. Every Chautauquan throughout the land, presumably, heard the peal of the Bryant bell at high noon on the 1st of October, for the little circle of Chautauquans who live at the

center of the great circle feel the responsibility of their position and an interesting report of the exercises has been given by a local paper. At half-past eleven a. m. all members of the C. L. S. C. upon the grounds gathered on the veranda of the C. L. S. C. office and formed a procession, which included not only graduates from a large number of the different C. L. S. C. classes, but also no less than seven members of the Guild of the Seven

Seals. The band in full uniform led the procession, while the Chautauquans and their friends, numbering more than one hundred, marched down to the pier, escorted by strains of festal music, and were there greeted by the ringing of the chimes. Promptly at twelve o'clock the great Bryant bell rang out its call to the Chautauqua Circles and the Chautauqua readers everywhere to begin the new year. Every member of the circle who could reach the long bell-rope lent a hand in helping the old bell to do its duty, and the ringing was hearty enough to send the vibration around the world. After the ringing of the bell, the president of the circle, Miss Hazen, made a brief address to those present, and the exercises of the day closed with a picnic, for which no more charming spot can be found than the shores of old Chautauqua.

UNIONS and circles are sending reports of progress by every mail. In Brooklyn, N. Y., always a strong center of Chautauqua influences, the new year was opened with a reunion on the evening of October 21st. A Vesper Service was conducted by Dr. Pardington, and an address delivered by Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut, general superintendent of the C. L. S. C. Following the address, an informal presentation of the books for the coming year was given to the audience, after the manner of the initiation used at Chautauqua this summer for the Class of 1901. At the close of the meeting a delightful reception was given to the graduates. A number of new circles are being organized under the direction of the Union and a very attractive course of lectures and social reunions has been prepared for Brooklyn members. The program includes entertainments on Thanksgiving night and on Washington's birthday, several social gatherings, and three important lectures by Professor Northrup on the following subjects: "Imperial Berlin and the German Army," "German Life in the Valley of the Rhine," and "The Classes and the Masses in Medieval Times." Altogether, the Brooklyn Chautauquans are to be congratulated upon their attractive program for the coming season.

In connection with the N. Y. East Conference of the M. E. Church, Miss C. A. Teal of 29 Spencer Place, Brooklyn, has been appointed organizer, and members of the C. L. S. C. or pastors of churches who desire her help in organizing circles will find her ready to lend a hand. Rev. W. D. Bridge, who is establishing new circles in the neighborhood of Boston, reports new circles all through his territory. The Chautauqua Sunday Vesper Service is being used very widely and pastors in all parts of the country are organizing circles.

DR. W. L. DAVIDSON, one of the field secretaries of the C. L. S. C., has organized a fine circle at his home in Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio. Under the inspiration of Dr. Davidson we may expect to see this cir-

cle carry its full membership of twenty-five right through the four years' course.

MR. GEORGE H. LINCKS, secretary for Hudson County, N. J., writes that one hundred and fifty new members will be the probable enrollment from his county. A new circle known as the Scudder was organized with more than sixty members, and in addition to the reorganized circles a number of new ones will be established. In the West and South the secretaries write of a more hopeful attitude on the part of people generally; better times have brought new courage, and Mrs. Dawson, from the Pacific coast, sends word of bright prospects in all directions. In Nebraska, Mrs. Corey, the state secretary, is working with much zeal. New circles are reported in different parts of the state. One of the county secretaries who has recently reorganized a circle in his own community writes, "I am seventy years old, and this is the eighth year of Chautauqua reading for me." The state secretary had C. L. S. C. headquarters at the Epworth League Assembly, at the G. A. R. reunion held at Lincoln, and at the State Fair at Omaha. At the latter she reports a registration of Chautauqua readers from Oregon, Colorado, South Dakota, and Iowa.

IN Iowa several Chautauqua Rallies have been held; one at Waterloo, which is a Chautauqua town indeed, as it holds a successful Assembly every summer, and keeps no less than four circles in active operation every year. In Des Moines the state secretary, Mrs. Shipley, has organized two new circles, the result of a delightful reunion held at her own home. Circles in other parts of the state report an increasing membership, and at Clarinda, where an Assembly was held for the first time this summer, the circle has reached very large proportions.

A CHAUTAUQUA Rally was held in Chicago on the evening of October 9. Bishop Vincent addressed the meeting, and a large company of Chautauqua members and their friends took part in the exercises. Bishop Vincent has held the Sunday Vesper Service at all of his recent fall conferences in Missouri, Iowa, Michigan, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and many pastors who attended these Vesper Services have gone back to their communities, carrying the Chautauqua influence into countless homes.

MANY circles are glad to make use of the Chautauqua badges, either at their regular meetings or on public occasions. The Chautauqua badge is only a modest bit of class ribbon, but it is full of significance, and the various colors, old gold, gray, blue, or olive, indicate that the owners belong respectively to the freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors among the hosts of Chautauqua undergraduates. These little ribbons can be secured from the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo for five cents each. Aside from these, silver and gold monogram

badges of simple but attractive design may also be secured. A little circular giving the various styles and classes will be sent upon application to Miss Kimball at the C. L. S. C. office, Buffalo, N. Y.

A DELIGHTFUL report has been received from the Pierian Circle at Stillwater, Minn. This circle, as is well known to many Chautauquans, is held within the walls of the state prison at Stillwater. An average attendance of thirty members has characterized this circle ever since its formation in 1890, and a great deal of straightforward hard work has been done by the members. The quarterly report of the secretary shows a present membership of thirty-three. The many changes in this Chautauqua circle necessitate very careful planning on the part of the circle librarian, to see that the members receive their books promptly, and that all are ready for work, but the machinery seems to move very smoothly and the circle is to be congratulated upon its excellent plan of organization. The program presented for the quarterly meeting is very attractive in its appearance, and includes papers by the members upon various important topics; book-lore, social equality, and the speed of electricity were among the subjects discussed. A number of visitors were present, and the whole program reflected great credit upon the members of the circle.

A MODEL CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLE.

EVERY Chautauqua circle is governed to some extent by local surroundings and by environments peculiar to itself, but some of the features which have made so successful the Emerson Circle of Alliance will (for it is certainly by the exchange of ideas and the experience of others that we gain most of that which is good in this life) surely be of some benefit to all others which can adopt them.

Thirteen faithful members comprising the Emerson Chautauqua Circle of Alliance, O., finished the course in June, 1894. Contrary to the unlucky features suggested by the number of members, the year had been a most successful one; the social part of the meetings was not neglected, and each one seemed to be inspired with an increased appetite for literary culture. The year's pleasant associations closed with a well-arranged social gathering, held at the home of one of the members. This seemed to be a fitting close for the year, and when good-bys were being said it was unanimously agreed to make the closing event of each following year so attractive that no one would want to drop out before the readings were duly completed. A visit to Chautauqua that summer by the members in a body so stimulated each one with enthusiasm for the work that the year of 1894-95 started out with a circle of thirty members, and of that number all but two remained until the end of the year. The interest continued to grow, and so successfully had the

meetings been conducted that when the roll was called at the beginning of the year 1895-96 thirty-seven members were on hand to take up the work. This seemed almost too many for a single circle, but there was no such thing as a division of that happy and congenial company of young people, and matters were so adjusted to accommodate the weekly meetings in a number of the homes that the machinery was soon running along smoothly into another year, whose termination was no less brilliant than the previous ones.

The French-Greeks then came together for organization in the fall of 1896. Applications for membership threatened to overwhelm the officers, and before a formal organization was effected the membership was limited to thirty-six as a matter of expediency, and this action seemed to be the best that could be devised for the good of all concerned. The system and rules which were adopted worked admirably. A careful record of the work of each member was kept by the secretary, and a system of grading established. At each meeting the roll was called, members answered to their names with a quotation or current event, and reported the credits earned for the week. As a penalty for poor work the half of the members receiving the lowest percentage for the whole year was to banquet the circle at the end of the year. Thus an incentive was made for each member to do his best, and the friendly rivalry brought forth every effort from all.

The banquet was duly held at our best hotel on June 20, and was one of the most elaborate social events ever held in the city. According to an established precedent, all arrangements were kept secret by the losing side, which made it more interesting to those having the banquet in charge than to those who had been winners in the contest. It had also been previously understood that those on the winning side were to prepare the toasts for the program upon subjects furnished, but on this occasion the losers bravely decided that notwithstanding the fact that they had fallen short in the work during the year (from causes beyond their control, of course) they were still able to furnish toasts at their own banquet, so some surprises awaited the honored guests when no toasts were assigned them.

How could there be a more fitting close to the winter's study of literary and scientific work than a social event of this nature? It is needless to say that the next year will open with still greater interest. With Chautauquans the world over, we hope to make still further progress, ever keeping in mind the words of the poet,

Too low they build who build beneath the stars.

CLARENCE O. SCRANTON,
Secretary Emerson Circle.

NEW CIRCLES.

VERMONT.—The promptitude with which the Informals at Randolph have chosen their name and elected their officers shows them to be already zealous and interested Chautauquans.—The pastor of the Congregational Church at North Bennington will give impetus to the work of a circle recently established in that place.—A progressive organizer sends five names from Royalton.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Chautauqua idea has taken hold upon a band of nine energetic people at North Attleboro.—Worcester comes forward with a membership of seven ready to make the start.—Two names are registered from Princeton.

CONNECTICUT.—This state reports two promising circles pledged to 1901; Derby launches out with twenty-one members and Ansonia takes pride in sixteen wide-awake readers.

NEW YORK.—The sixteen 1901's at Roxbury have at once established their identity by calling themselves the Bonny-brook Circle.—Reinforcements to the number of fifteen are entering the work of the Twentieth Century Class at Stockton.—A trustworthy band of five at Frewsburg have joined forces with the Class of 1901.—Among the many recruits for the new class are circles formed at Schenectady and Cleveland.—Avon is also giving a good corps of workers to the cause.

NEW JERSEY.—Jersey City can hold its own with any city as an exponent of Chautauqua enthusiasm and as a firm believer in spreading the work. The largest beginning ever made by a circle in Hudson County is recorded for the sixty and more who joined ranks with the hosts of Jersey City readers as the result of a meeting in the First Congregational Church on October 11. The circle is not confined to the membership of the church, but is thrown open to all who believe in self-improvement and are willing to take the course of reading. On October 8 the First Methodist Church was the scene of an equally important organization for Chautauqua study, resulting in the enrollment of fourteen members. The assistant pastor of the Tabernacle Congregational Church has successfully organized a circle, the initial meeting showing a dozen members. The recruits for the new class from the Heights number eight.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Good material for the new class is furnished in the little band of five organized at Bradford.—The reading course is to have a trial from several people at Waynesburg.—Five enthusiastic Pittsburgers have formed a circle.

MARYLAND.—The course of the English year, 1894-95, has been chosen as the work of a small circle at Annapolis.—The Chautauqua work is taken up with great zeal by eight literary people of Baltimore.

TEXAS.—The class at Nacogdoches expects great

benefit from their pursuance of the work, and if they are faithful in their part they will not be disappointed.

INDIAN TERRITORY.—Distance from the C.L.S.C. center will not lessen the loyalty of the five beginners at Wynne Wood.

OHIO.—An enterprising crowd of young people of Troy have organized under the name of the Students' Fraternity Chautauqua Circle.—Chautauqua interest is spreading among the people of Hough Avenue Congregational Church, Cleveland. A Home Circle is also organized in this city.—Valuable additions to the Class of 1901 are found in the well-equipped circles at Swan Creek and Chillicothe.

INDIANA.—True Chautauqua loyalty is manifested by a member of '91 at Elkhart who has succeeded in forming a new class in that place. Let the good work go on.—Indianapolis reports a promising band of readers.

ILLINOIS.—Five ladies and two gentlemen at Plainview have made a good beginning in the German-Roman year.

MICHIGAN.—The Chautauqua Vesper Service held in the Congregational Church, Bay City, was the direct means of adding three new names to the twelve already pledged to the work.—A half-dozen resolute people of Litchfield have joined the ranks of the beginners.

MINNESOTA.—Tracy contributes to the list of 1901's sixteen readers.—A corps of workers at Minneapolis will hold weekly meetings.

IOWA.—A small but energetic circle is well launched at Riverton.

MISSOURI.—Carthage, which has already so many loyal Chautauquans, sends a list of names for the new class.

MONTANA.—A club of fourteen at Dillon will take up the work in sociology.—With a membership of sixteen and a full list of wide-awake officers the circle at Great Falls has begun the reading.

OLD CIRCLES.

MAINE.—The Dirigos of Lewiston are preparing for the winter's campaign with three additions to their number.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The '99's are in the majority at Canaan.

VERMONT.—"I cannot imagine such a thing as failure for the Burlington Circle," writes the scribe of that enthusiastic band. They are affiliated with the Y. M. C. A. and are delightfully located.

MASSACHUSETTS.—"Epworth Circle, Worcester, has begun the season's work and will meet regularly to talk over the reading and to benefit by individual criticism."

CONNECTICUT.—On the last day of August the Joel Barlow Circle of Redding held a Chautauqua

picnic in which their friends joined them. A unique ornament for the dinner table consisted of a ham garnished with nasturtiums and decorated with a C. L. S. C. monogram in cloves. After dinner the picnickers had their pictures taken and then listened to a report of the Chautauqua Assembly.—The Classes of '96, '98, '99, and 1900 are represented in the circle at Wapping.—The second year's work of the circle at Greenfield began the last day of September

NEW YORK.—Early in October the circle at Mount Vernon inaugurated its third year with an enthusiastic meeting in which the president gave a telling account of what the circle had already done and what they should expect this year. This circle has thirteen '99's and thirteen '01's.—Prophetic of a successful season's work are the beginnings of the Hawthorns at Corning, the Wawayandas at Bridgebury, and the Edelweiss Circle of New York.—The well-marshaled forces at Carthage, Newburg, Adams Center, and Norwich give evidence of being a power in Chautauqua work.—Sixteen '99's and one new member compose the circle at Oneida.—The Alumni Association of Syracuse is alive to the interests of its *alma mater*, as is shown by the report of the annual meeting held October 4. Officers were elected, arrangements made for the formation of a new circle, and the report of the year's work was read, after which the delegate to Chautauqua made her report in a pleasing and entertaining manner.

NEW JERSEY.—Culver Circle of Jersey City was reorganized recently at the home of the president. The Una Circle has started out to win fresh laurels. They meet every Monday evening.—A new name is added to Pemberton Circle.

PENNSYLVANIA.—“The Irving Circle has entered upon its seventh year with bright prospects. They hold weekly meetings of from two to three hours each. Class work is to be inaugurated this year together with talks and quizzes on popular educational subjects. This circle is located in the bright little town of Sellersville and is the foremost of all organizations.”—Stirring reports come from the Vincents at Cochran, the Whittier Circle at Minersville, and the Renaissance Circle at York, organized in '92, and now taking a special course.—Troy has a circle organized in '95.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—A flourishing circle in Washington has been doing good work for three years and is still loyal to the cause.

GEORGIA.—Chautauqua is well represented in Decatur in a circle of varied membership, the regular readers numbering about a dozen, while at times twenty-five are in attendance at the meetings.

KENTUCKY.—One charter member remains in the circle which was organized at Richmond fourteen years ago. The circle is as loyal as in its youth, and is making great plans for the future.—On October 1 the Chautauquans at Mt. Sterling reorganized.

OHIO.—“We cannot begin to tell the benefit we have derived from the now acquired habit of reading good literature,” writes the secretary of a loyal circle at Sidney.—Six Laniers are renewing their work in Paulding.—Buckeye Circle, Cincinnati, and McPherson Circle, Fremont, are giving strict attention to Chautauqua work.

INDIANA.—Thoroughly prepared for the study of the new books are the circles at Knightstown and Decatur.

ILLINOIS.—Electa Circle, Chicago, has reason to be proud of its aged members. One has finished the course in her seventieth year, and another begins in her seventy-fifth year.—The Shakespeare Course is followed by a goodly number in Carlinville.—Several new names are reported from Harvard.

WISCONSIN.—The Westfield Circle has reached its first milestone and now with three new members is pursuing the work with spirit.—A circle at Orfordville is doing good work for the Chautauqua cause.

IOWA.—A charming souvenir program is received, accompanied by a newspaper account of the Manchester Alumni entertainment held at Pythian Castle early in October. Pythian Castle was charmingly decorated, appropriate addresses were made, the principal one being the “Past and Future of Chautauqua Work,” by Judge E. P. Seeds. At the close of the entertainment ice cream and cake was served and the remainder of the time occupied in social converse.—The Gilman Rustic Circle is held in high esteem for its zeal and enthusiasm in Chautauqua literary work.—The Trip to England Course has found favor in the eyes of the Monday Afternoon Club of twenty-five at Dubuque.—Four years ago five busy people of Creston met and formed a circle, which soon doubled its number by each old member bringing in one new one. The next year the membership was doubled in the same way. In '96 a branch society was formed and the graduates have now formed a Society of the Hall in the Grove.—Officers are elected for the Wild Rose Circle of Sheffield.—1901 forms a large majority of the circle at Valley Junction.

NORTH DAKOTA.—“At the frontier post of Fort Yates a courageous class of eight meet for review and light entertainment once in two weeks, and these meetings are ‘red-letter days’ in the long winter of this semi-arctic region.”

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

THE approaching holiday season brings from the publishing houses a large number of volumes, among which the purchaser of Christmas gifts will easily find one to suit his fancy. This department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN gives a glimpse of these books, in the publication of which the author has taken into his confidence the artist and the publisher, the result being an unusually large number of books which are literary, artistic, and handsomely bound.



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HALL CAINE.

Following the publication of "The Christian," by Hall Caine, which was reviewed in the columns of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for November, D. Appleton & Company are putting out many valuable and attractive volumes. One of them is "Curious Homes and their Tenants,"* to read which creates a keen

and sympathetic interest in the different members of the animal kingdom. It includes succinct accounts of the manner in which animals from every zone manifest human traits, with a description of their dwellings and those of the cliff-dwellers. The pictorial portion of the book is exceedingly attractive and adds to the impression made by the textual contents.

Some of nature's most wonderful treasures may be found in the ocean, and fortunate is the youth who can visit the seashore and study the beautiful objects fresh from their native place. For those who must obtain their knowledge second-hand, a small volume entitled "The Hall of Shells"† will serve as an introduction to a wider study of marine zoology. The information imparted is in the form of a simple story into which are woven appropriate mythological tales. Included in the book are several illustrations which reflect the spirit of the text.

For the purpose of giving to children useful information in an attractive form Oscar Phelps Austin has written a story which he calls "Uncle Sam's Secrets."‡ A farmer of West Virginia who has sold some mountain land receives in payment, be-

* Curious Homes and their Tenants. By James Carter Beard. 298 pp. 65 cts.—† The Hall of Shells. By Mrs. A. S. Hardy. 198 pp. 60 cts.—‡ Uncle Sam's Secrets. By Oscar Phelps Austin. 367 pp. 75 cts. New York: D. Appleton & Company.

sides gold and silver, five \$500 bills on which ink is accidentally spilled. These defaced bills he sends by a step-son, Dan Patterson, to Washington to be exchanged for new ones. Dan is admitted to a postal car, visits the mint and other interesting places in Philadelphia, is arrested, released on bail, and finally arrives in Washington, where more trouble awaits him. The story is interesting and well told and the conversations are filled with facts relating to the history and government of the United States. The text is appropriately illustrated with full-page pictures of interesting places.

A collection of essays on animal life bears the title "Wild Neighbors."* They are entertaining studies of the haunts and habits of some of the undesirable though not uninteresting quadrupeds found in the United States, to which is added a chapter on the intelligence of animals and animal training. The gray squirrel, coyote, badger, porcupine, woodchuck, raccoon, skunk, and American panther are the animals about which the author has written many interesting and important facts. The two dozen pictorial representations are in perfect harmony with the contents of the essays.



From Ernest Ingersoll's
"Wild Neighbors."

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A RED SQUIRREL.

THE late Lord Tennyson† having endeared himself to the whole world by his exquisite verse, a memoir by one who knew him intimately has been awaited with eager expectancy. In producing this memoir the son tells us in the prefatory pages that he has followed the wishes of his illustrious father in making the account of the principal events of Tennyson's life brief and in suppressing so far as possible his own individuality. The memoir is con-

* Wild Neighbors. By Ernest Ingersoll. 297 pp. \$1.50.—

† Alfred Lord Tennyson. A Memoir by his Son. Two vols. 539+551 pp. \$10. New York: The Macmillan Company.

sequently made up largely of quotations from many poems and unpublished manuscripts; of diary notes kept by Lord Tennyson, by his wife, and by the author of the present work; and of many interesting letters written by Lord Tennyson and by a large number of his friends. Numerous foot-notes and appendices contain additional information. All these sources are made to contribute to the one object of the work—to give the reader a true idea of the nobility of character of one of the world's greatest singers. Two large volumes are required to contain this wealth of biographical material and at intervals there are interspersed pictures of Tennyson, his wife and children, and views of Farringford and Aldworth. There are also facsimiles of the original manuscript of four short poems, one of them being "Crossing the Bar." The volumes are printed in large, clear type and neatly bound in green cloth.

No cover could be more suggestive of the contents of a book than is that of Professor Weed's "Life Histories of American Insects."* Entomological specimens of various shapes, sizes, and colors on leaf forms of tan is a design as striking as it is artistic. Opening the book we find that it contains twenty-one full-page plates and a large number of small sketches illustrating the text, which, as the title indicates, presents the histories of many insects. In a plain, simple manner, without superfluous technical names, the author describes each insect, its habits, and its haunts, though in most cases the scientific name is given. It is a helpful book for the non-professional student of nature.

The national pilgrimage to the town made famous by the vision of Bernadette Soubirous is the subject exploited by Émile Zola in "Lourdes."† The events of the five days, three of which were spent at Lourdes, are set forth in such a powerful and highly realistic manner that the reader will not be able to forget the pilgrimage, the Lourdes, and all it means to the credulous. A fine study of the relation between the psychic and physical conditions is also here presented.

* Life Histories of American Insects. By Clarence Moore Weed, D. Sc. 284 pp. \$1.50.—† Lourdes. By Émile Zola. Translated by Ernest A. Vizetelly. Two vols. 388+400 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

The compiler of "The Chautauqua Year Book"‡ has displayed a keen appreciation of the beautiful gems of truth that may be gathered from the world's abundance of literature. This little volume is made up of numerous quotations—several for each day of the year—which represent the highest talent in literary circles, and each contains a thought in harmony with that expressed by the Bible text for the day. It is a scholarly and helpful work, imparting to the reader many ennobling and inspiring thoughts to cheer and encourage him to strive for that which is highest in life. The beauty of the contents is reflected in the covers, which are decorated with an artistic design in gold. The excellent typographical work should also be mentioned as one of the factors contributing to the production of a fine example of book-making.

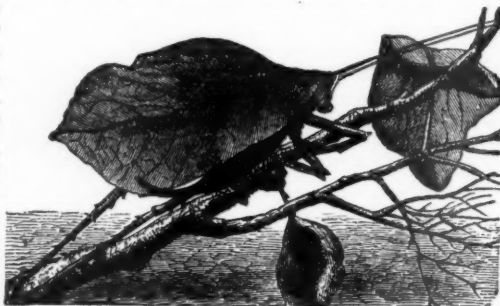
The "Chautauqua Booklet Calendar for 1898"† is also edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. Besides the Scripture texts and other excellent quotations for each day of the year it includes the C.L.S.C. and the different class mottoes, and a class directory containing the names of the classes with the flower or emblem for each. It is encased in dainty covers.

Lerwick, in the Shetland Islands, is the home of the Borsons, whom Amelia E. Barr has made the chief actors in "Prisoners of Conscience."‡ The influence of paganism on the lives of these people, though they are Christians and firm adherents of the creed of the Shorter Catechism, is made very evident. There is a consequent weirdness in the story which entices the reader from page to page, to learn that faith in Christ triumphed over creed and over paganism in spite of the sorrows and tragedies of life. Several illustrations reproduce the scenes described by the author.

About thirty years is the period of time over which Dr. S. Weir Mitchell's story of the American Revolution§ extends. It is autobiographical in style, being a recital by Hugh Wynne of the exciting events of his life. While setting forth the dangers

—* The Chautauqua Year Book. Selected and edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. 387 pp. Boston: The Pilgrim Press.
† The Chautauqua Booklet Calendar for 1898. Edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. Syracuse, N. Y.: University Press. Eaton & Mains.

‡ Prisoners of Conscience. By Amelia E. Barr. 240 pp. —§ Hugh Wynne. By S. Weir Mitchell, M. D. Two vols. 306+261 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Century Co.



From Clarence M. Weed's
"Life Histories of American Insects."

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A LEAF INSECT.



From Elbridge S. Brooks'
"The Century Book of the American Revolution."

WHERE WASHINGTON MET LEE AT MONMOUTH.

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of a war in which he was an active participant he has given us a kindly picture of his dearest friend, Jack Warder, and portrayed equally well the character of his strongest foe, a cousin and an unscrupulous Tory. He also depicts the manners and customs of Philadelphia society in that period with the simplicity and the perspicuity of one who is thoroughly familiar with what he describes, making a very realistic picture of that stormy period. It is a powerful American story and one which every one should read.

The company of young people who last year visited the homes of many noted Americans have taken another trip with the same genial uncle. This time they visit places whose historic interest dates from the American Revolution. From Boston one fine morning they rode out to Lexington and Concord, where they studied the important events which took place there during the century. This was followed by a journey to the battle-fields of the North and the South, during which they learned the story of the struggle for independence. The conversation of the young people is animated and filled with information concerning people as well as places. All this is told by Elbridge S. Brooks in his happiest vein, making a very attractive story* of the revolutionary period of American history. The author has brought into service the photographer's art to make his work more impressive, the result being pictorial representations of many events, places, and people of interest.

The book entitled "The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome" is well adapted to the purpose

therefore eminently qualified by education, scholarship, and position for the authorship of such a



From Rodolfo Lanciani's
"The Ruins and Excavations of
Ancient Rome."

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Company.

BRONZE HEAD FOUND IN THE TIBER.

book. In describing the ruins of ancient Rome and the excavations which have been made, the

*The Century Book of the American Revolution. By Elbridge S. Brooks. Illustrated 250 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

*The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome. By Rodolfo Lanciani. 644 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

author has divided the volume into four books. The first is devoted to general information concerning the topography of Rome. The soil, climate, hydrography, geology, aqueducts, walls, and fortifications are some of the topics treated. The Palatine Hill, its ruins and excavations, is the subject of the second division. In this there is an account of the origin of the city of the Palatine Hill and a description of its temples, palaces, and other monuments of which only ruins remain. In the third book the author treats of the Sacra Via from the Colosseum to the Capitoline Hill, describing the buildings and monuments which were once the pride of every Roman. The remainder of Rome is delineated in the last book. Each of these books is divided into sections treating of different subjects, the bibliographies of which immediately follow. This systematic arrangement of the text makes the volume a valuable reference book, as do also the appendix and the two indexes. Besides this vast amount of information, written in clear, concise sentences, the book contains over two hundred pictures, maps, and plans of buildings.

Life among the peasantry of Ireland is portrayed by Jane Barlow in her "*Irish Idylls*."* They are pictures of homely life in Connemara, drawn with a facile, ready pen, and give the world a glimpse of the joys and sorrows, the hatred and love, the glad hopes and bitter disappointments which come to even the most lowly. They are sympathetic sketches which cannot but arouse the kindly interest of every reader. The present edition of these idylls is copiously illustrated by excellent pictures, the material for which, we are told, was obtained by the artist on a trip to the Connemara bogslands taken for that express purpose.

It is from biographical works as well as from formal histories that students may obtain valuable information concerning different periods of a country's development. "*The Story of Marie Antoi-*

nette"† while exhibiting a very candid portrait of one of the queens of France also gives the reader a clear idea of the etiquette and customs of court life in the eighteenth century, of the intriguing in political circles, and of important events in the historical development of France. The volume is written in a simple, straightforward way which makes it easily readable and attractive. Not less interesting are the excellent full-page illustrations, which are reproductions of famous paintings.

Rudyard Kipling has tried his hand at an American story† with very successful results. The hero is a youth of sixteen, the son of a multi-millionaire, and



From Jane Barlow's "*Irish Idylls*."

Copyright, 1897, by Dodd, Mead & Co.

LISCONNEL FIGS.

he is exceedingly disagreeable when he is introduced to the reader. A summer with Gloucester fishermen near the Grand Banks produces a wonderful trans-

* *Irish Idylls*. By Jane Barlow. 329 pp. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

† *The Story of Marie Antoinette*. By Anna Picknell. 334 pp. —† *Captains Courageous*. By Rudyard Kipling. 323 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Company.

formation which the author reveals while vividly portraying life on board a schooner during the fishing season. Skilfully the author has wrought into his narrative a spirited account of a fast run from Los Angeles to Boston of the private car "Constance." It is a bright, entertaining story.

A class of individuals whose importance in the industrial economy of America has been little understood is that to which the herdsmen of the plains belong. The erroneous notions of cowboys as a class conveyed by fiction is dispelled by "The Story of the Cowboy" as told by E. Hough, a chapter from which appeared in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for August. He first explains how the American cattle industry developed from herding on the Mexican plains, a development in which much honor is to be accorded to the cowboy. He then describes the ranches of the North and the South, following which the real history of a cowboy's life begins. His outfit, his horse, every feature of his work, his amusements, social customs among the cowboys, the nester, the rustler, and warfare on a ranch are all described with minuteness in clear, forceful English. It is an impartial, sympathetic delineation, which rivets the attention of the reader until the last page is finished. The illustrators, William L. Wells and C. M. Russell, have represented in several excellent full-page pictures the cowboys doing some of their most interesting work.

The title of a recent book by F. Anstey is "Baboo Hurry Bungsho Jabberjee, B. A.,"† a title quite incomprehensible until the introduction is read. There it is explained that the honorable gentleman is "an able B. A. from a respectable Indian University" who has come to London to enter the Inns of Court. The present volume is his own account written for *Punch* of his experiences in London society, and he also expresses his opinions on various



From E. Hough's
"The Story of the Cowboy."

THE COWBOY.

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D. Appleton & Co.

subjects of more or less importance, as bicycling, the art of the old masters, the laureateship, and the inter-collegiate boat-race. The style of the recital is just what might be expected, grandiloquent, facetious, showing an ignorance of the subtleties of the English language. The artist has given us a picture of the Hindoo and several of his London acquaintances.

To the long list of books about the Maid of Orleans Mary Hartwell Catherwood has added "The Days of Jeanne d' Arc."* It is a simple, fascinating tale in which Jeanne is delineated as a pure, fervently religious, and patriotic maid, seeing visions which lead her to conduct the siege of Orleans for the salvation of France. Life in the fifteenth cen-

*The Story of the Cowboy. By E. Hough. Illustrated by William L. Wells and C. M. Russell. 359 pp. \$1.50.—

†Baboo Hurry Bungsho Jabberjee, B. A. By F. Anstey. 288 pp. New York: D. Appleton & Company.

*The Days of Jeanne d' Arc. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. 278 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

tury and the places made famous by the presence of Jeanne d'Arc are effectively described and into the story there is woven a delicate sentiment which touches the heart of the reader.

The genial pedantry of Donald G. Mitchell makes the reading world again his debtor by the publication of the fourth volume of his English Lands and Letters series.* In a paragon of prefaces he forecasts the contents of the book, conjuring with a few neat pen-strokes dainty word-silhouettes of those whose full-length portraiture follows later. From the Lake School poets to the Victorian writers is the scope of the discussion, and the author displays that accurate scholarship and candid, if sometimes partial, judgment which alone can render such a work valuable. Supplementary to the American Lands and Letters series, these books will be given an honored place among literary criticism.

The little fellow who the day after Christmas comes suddenly to the rueful consciousness that his last bit of Santa Claus candy is at that moment gratifying his palate experiences no more dubious enjoyment than the Stevenson devotee lingering over the last pages of "St Ives."† Unhappily the chill of future privation strikes us even at the thirtieth chapter, and it is only by recalling long-suffered pangs antecedent the Edwin Drood mystery that we are decently thankful to the gifted Mr. Quiller-Couch, who has so deftly woven this unfinished tale to its completion. "The great master of us all," to use Barry's fond term, has let no pathetic shade of the approaching dark dim the enthralling brilliancy of this last of his published works; and while doubtless so careful an artist as he would have given the book many a refining touch had not his workday waned, no critic can decry or admirer lament any faltering in the old buoyancy and spirit, any laxness in the old rigid ideality of style which will always distinguish "R. L. S." from the dilettante. In plot and incident, too, the soul of genius rises triumphant, and of the hero, the Viscount de St. Ives, it is enough to say that he merits brotherhood with my lord of Ballantrae and the immortal tars of Treasure Island.

Of all enchanting realms that entice the child mind, surely Toyland must be the most irresistible; and when a pretty blue volume bedight with fascinating wooden dolls and rampant jacks-in-the-box,

* English Lands, Letters, and Kings. The Later Georges to Victoria. By Donald G. Mitchell. 294 pp. \$1.50.—† St. Ives. Being the Adventures of a French Prisoner in England. By Robert Louis Stevenson. 438 pp. \$1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.



From Donald G. Mitchell's
"American Lands and Letters."

Copyright, 1897, by
Charles Scribner's Sons.

WASHINGTON IRVING.

disporting themselves in all sorts of captivating postures, boldly announces "Adventures in Toyland" * who doubts that many pairs of bright eyes will grow big with eagerness to explore this treasure-mine from cover to cover? And such marvelous acquaintances await them in the colored plates and dainty drawings within! But—if we must be ungracious to be true—in our grown-up opinion the little ones will not miss much if they end their investigation with the pictures, for unfortunately these high-born British toys are far ahead of our New World bairnies both in their vocabulary and their range of motive and sentiment.

In the last volume of the series called Women

* Adventures in Toyland. By Edith King Hall. Illustrated by Alice B. Woodward. 152 pp. \$2.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

of Colonial and Revolutionary Times* the gentle yet distinguished career of Dame Catherine Schuyler, first introduced as "sweet Kitty V. R.," is made the central picture round which to group many representative scenes from our colonial history at the vital period of the two great wars and many quaint little *genre* studies of the romantic life in the old Dutch manor-houses of Albany and New York. The author, Mary Gay Humphreys, wields a graceful pen in such narration and has scored a marked success in her attempt to implant new seeds of interest in the well-worked field of our national beginnings.

Since Mrs. Burnett first won our hearts with her almost inspired creation of little Cedric Errol she has been given an undisputed place as a classic in child literature, and Messrs. Scribner have shown a keen sense of appropriateness in the superb binding in which they now present five volumes† of this charming author's distinctively juvenile tales. The ornate designs and harmonious color scheme that beautify the exterior of these volumes permit no adequate description, but it can be vouched that no handsomer and at the same time more meritorious set of children's stories can be found in all the book mart to-day.

Dean Farrar has enjoyed the acquaintance of many illustrious people, both in America and in his own country, and in a volume entitled "Men I Have Known"‡ he has written of these friends and friendships. There are more than fifty of them, among whom are Lord Tennyson, Matthew Arnold, Dean Stanley, Darwin, Tyndall, Huxley, Lowell, Whittier, Holmes, Phillips Brooks, Cardinal Newman, Dean Johnson, the Lytons, Dickens, Carlyle, and other poets, scientists, divines, and literary contemporaries. The author has employed a bright, dignified style in giving his readers entertaining anecdotes, bright conversations, and interesting incidents, by which he has shown himself a close observer and an able judge of men. The volume is in no way a formal biography but it contains many facts relative to the lives of these men valuable to the student of literature. The illustrations include facsimile letters and portraits.

What crime did Sylvestre Bonnard commit is the

question one repeatedly asks as he reads Anatole France's story "The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard."* No answer is obtained until the end of the story is almost reached. Then the sympathy is all with the criminal, a simple-hearted, learned old man who is incapable of any misdemeanor, unless, as in this case, it is committed unwittingly, and for the purpose of securing the happiness of a poor orphan. The plot of the story is simple, there is very little action, and the minor characters as well as the principal ones are well drawn. Brilliant and artistic covers of purple and gold encase this little story.

A volume substantially and attractively bound contains the poems of Matthew Arnold.† These compositions are characterized by a stateliness and dignity of expression which contributes largely to



From Dean Farrar's
"Men I Have Known."

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Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

DEAN FARRAR.

perfection in the form of Arnold's poems. However, they express a tenderness and depth of feeling which do not fail to reach the responsive heart of the reader. The present volume is a complete

* Women of Colonial and Revolutionary Times. Catherine Schuyler. By Mary Gay Humphreys. With portrait. 251 pp. \$1.25.—† Little Lord Fauntleroy; Piccino and Other Child Stories; Sara Crewe, Little Saint Elizabeth, and Other Stories; Two Little Pilgrims' Progress; Giovanni and the Other Children. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Five vols. 12mo. Each \$1.25. Per set, \$6.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ Men I Have Known. By the Very Rev. Frederick W. Farrar, D. D. 292 pp. \$1.75. Boston and New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

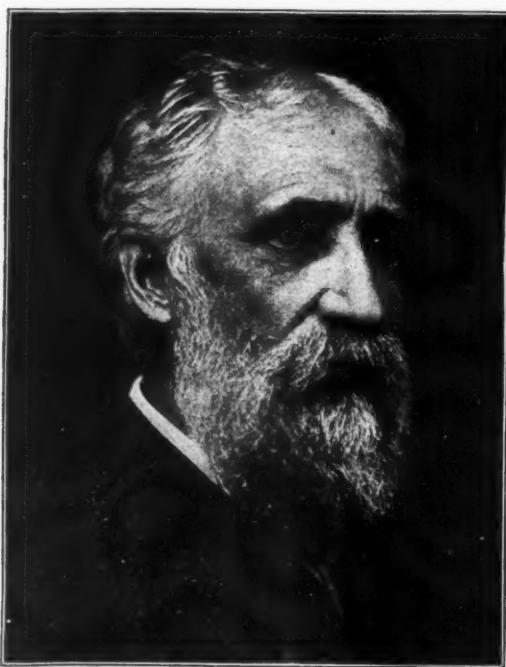
* The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard. By Anatole France. Translated into English by Arabella Ward. 245 pp. \$1.00.

—† The Poetical Works of Matthew Arnold. Complete Edition. 529 pp. \$1.50. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

edition and contains a biographical sketch of the poet and valuable notes on the poems.

Four small volumes representative of the Charles Dudley Warner Library have been issued as "The Warner Classics."* They contain literary and

which will tend to arouse an interest in classic literature. Engravings and half-tone portraits give an idea of the personal appearance of both the writers and the subjects of the essays. The volumes are small, and they are handsomely bound in red.



By courtesy of *The Literary Digest*.

CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER.

critical studies in essay form reprinted from those prepared especially for this famous library. The subjects treated in these souvenir volumes are the great philosophers, novelists, poets, and historians, about whom some of the world's ablest scholars have written in a very clever way. Each of the studies is especially valuable because it expresses the opinions of a thinker who has made a special study of his subject, and in several cases the writer was a friend of the person about whom he has written. Professor Waldstein, a personal friend of George Eliot, has written an entertaining essay on her life and works. Leslie Stephen, who writes about Carlyle, was an acquaintance of the brilliant essayist. Gibbon is the subject of Lecky's essay and Charles Dudley Warner tells us about Byron. The four volumes contain fourteen delightful essays

The interest of the nineteenth century student of literature in the Arthurian cycle may be responsible for the publication of "King Arthur and the Table Round,"* but, whatever is the cause of its issue, we are glad to obtain it, not merely because it is a fine representative of book-making but because of its literary value. The introductory chapters, in which are considered some debatable questions, relate to the history of the Arthurian romance. In the first of these chapters it is asserted that the romance as now known is a literary production for which "neither history nor tradition is primarily responsible." It is also claimed that in outline, style, and in general conception "the Arthurian romance is a French construction," the character of its present form being due largely to the influence of Crestien of Troyes, a French poet of the twelfth century. A chapter on the sources of the Arthurian tales leads to the conclusion that the greater portion of the material composing the romances now extant was not derived from Britain. About the middle of the twelfth century through the influence of the court minstrels "adventurous and sentimental poetry" of supposedly British origin be-

came popular, and French authors, to make a story "fashionably British," frequently inserted names whose form and sound indicated a foreign origin. The writer further remarks that little of the Arthurian verse of the last half of the twelfth century remains except the work of Crestien and his followers and "it is chiefly from the romances of Crestien himself that his sources must be conjectured." Short essays on Crestien and his literary work, the prose romances evolved from the Arthurian verse and Tennyson's "Idylls of the King" complete an introduction which is written in simple yet forceful and convincing language. Three of the tales, "Erec and Enide," "Alexander and Soredamor," and "The Knight of the Lion" are included in the first volume. The text of the second volume comprises the remaining seven tales and notes explain-

*The Warner Classics. Selected from the Introductory Studies included in Charles Dudley Warner's Library of the World's Best Literature. Four vols. Sent to any address, postage prepaid, for \$1.00. New York: Harper's Weekly Club.

*King Arthur and the Table Round. Tales chiefly after the old French of Crestien of Troyes, with an Account of Arthurian Romance, and Notes by William Wells Newell. Two vols. 290+268 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

ing omissions and other matters of interest relating to the stories, which, we are told, are from the old French of Crestien of Troyes, five of them reproducing as closely as possible the ideas and language of the original, and the other five being but outlines of the original recitals.

A charming collection of holiday souvenirs and Christmas greetings are annually issued by L. Prang and Company* of Boston. This year they are prepared to supply the public with an unusually large variety of novelties, which in daintiness and artistic designs have never been surpassed. Garlands of pansies, whole handfuls of violets, stately roses, yellow-eyed daisies, the modest little forget-me-not, and other floral friends have been wrought with soft, delicate colors into graceful designs for Christmas cards, booklets, and calendars. Fairy-like forms, portraits of musical and literary artists, scenes from Longfellow's famous idyl, with pictures of the characters he has immortalized, are also among the ornamental decorations which grace the calendar pages. Exquisite verses and charming little poems are brought into these works of art, which are silently educating the people to a love and appreciation of the beautiful.

It was a delightful summer and one full of happy experiences that three young ladies of New England spent in the Scandinavian peninsula.† They visited a sister of two of the girls, who lived in the country two miles from Christiania. From there they made short trips to noted places and before returning to America they sailed around the coast of Norway, crossing the arctic circle to see the midnight sun. They were unusually observant and careful to record in notebooks the daily happenings and descriptions of interesting places, people, and customs. The slender thread of romance running through the recital makes it doubly attractive. Many of the scenes admired by the girls the artist has reproduced for the benefit of the reader.

More than forty years Madame Mathilde Marchesi has spent in the musical profession in which she has won an enviable reputation, but not without

* Prang's Holiday Publications. Sumptuous calendars, fine art books, and Christmas cards. Calendars a specialty. The only American line. 5 cts to \$4.00. Boston: L. Prang & Company.

† A Norway Summer. By Laura D. Nichols. 178 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

hard labor. In the story of her life as told by herself we learn that when she was about seventeen years of age her father lost his fortune and she as well as her sister was obliged to seek a position as governess. Her sister, recognizing her superior musical talent, offered to pay for her music lessons, and she entered upon her studies with the best instructors. From that time her life was devoted to music. Her memoirs* tell in a charming way of experiences, pleasant and disagreeable, of defeats and successes, of her friends among celebrated musicians, and of her many music pupils. She has also expressed in a general way throughout the narrative her opinion on certain principles which govern the art of singing. It is a most interesting book and one especially valuable to students of voice.

According to the author's own words the story of Diomed's life and travels is intended for those



From Laura D. Nichols' "A Norway Summer."

OLD BORGUND CHURCH.

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"who are too old to shoot, or who can no longer steal time for sport, and have to do their shooting

* Marchesi and Music. By Mathilde Marchesi. With an introduction by Massenet. Illustrated. 315 pp. New York: Harper & Brothers.

† Diomed. The Life, Travels, and Observations of a Dog. By John Sergeant Wise. Illustrated by J. Linton Chapman. 330 pp. Boston and New York: Lamson, Wolfe and Company.

in their heads nowadays." Diomed is a remarkably intelligent dog, trained for hunting, and he is made the *raconteur* of his own experiences, diversifying the recital by observations of an interesting nature. The sportsman surely will enjoy a season's hunt with Diomed in the mountains of Virginia, on the prairies of the West, in the border territory of Mexico, and in the pines of Florida. The story will be no less appreciated by the young people who are fond of the gun and the dog. The book is amply illustrated by beautiful pictures and in its general make-up it is an admirable representative of the book-maker's art.

A volume of which Lew Wallace is the author contains two poems. The first is "The Wooing of Malkatoon,"* a romantic story of love in which a noble youth of the Orient figures as the hero. The second part of the volume is a drama, "Commodus," founded on a story told by Roman historians. It is the story of Maternus, who, according to one version, was a slave liberated from bondage by his own efforts. He gathered about himself a large band of robbers who attacked fortified cities. Commodus, the emperor, sent imperial troops to rid the country of their presence. Maternus by a remarkable strata-

and the author has made the most of them, at the same time portraying personages of historical renown in their true light. The illustrations are the work of F. V. Du Mond and J. R. Weguelin.

A volume scarcely to be excelled in sumptuousness of general make-up is one containing products of Du Maurier's pen entitled "A Legend of Camelot."* The title, printed in large rubricated letters, is one of the first characteristics to attract the eye. On every page of the volume there are rubrications. Sometimes the red appears only in the initial letter or in the border lines of a picture, or, as in one section, in the last words of every stanza of poetry, the initial letter, and the line between the columns; but the effect of the whole is bright and artistic. The publisher has used an excellent quality of heavy paper upon which to display these illuminations and the text has been printed in very clear though not very large type. The contents of the volume consists of poems, "Vers Nonsensiques," short stories, and pictures which, with one exception, first appeared in *Punch*. Every feature of the pictures, many of which cover a whole page, is distinctly brought out, and they are representative of Du Maurier's talent as an artist.



From Lew Wallace's "The Wooing of Malkatoon."

THE SINGING BACCHANTES.

Copyright, 1897, by Harper and Brothers.

gem circumvented them and reaching Rome during a festal season attempted to assassinate the emperor. This story is full of dramatic possibilities

*The Wooing of Malkatoon: Commodus. Two poems by Lew Wallace. Illustrated by F. V. Du Mond and J. R. Weguelin. 168 pp. New York: Harper and Brothers.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of fall and winter literature see pages 197-240 of the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

*A Legend of Camelot, Pictures and Poems, etc. By George Du Maurier. 95 pp. New York: Harper and Brothers.

